



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

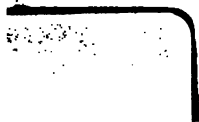
About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



46.

1618.







ELEMENTS
OF
GENERAL HISTORY,
ANCIENT AND MODERN.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED, A
COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ANCIENT AND MODERN GEOGRAPHY,
AND
A TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

BY ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER,
LORD WOODHOUSELEE,
LATE LORD COMMISSIONER OF JUSTICIARY IN SCOTLAND; AND FORMERLY PROFESSOR
OF CIVIL HISTORY AND GREEK AND ROMAN ANTIQUITIES, IN THE
UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.

A NEW EDITION,
WITH CONSIDERABLE ADDITIONS TO THE AUTHOR'S TEXT, NUMEROUS NOTES,
AND A
CONTINUATION
FROM THE REVOLUTION IN 1688 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

EDITED BY THE REV. BRANDON TURNER, M.A.



LONDON:
PRINTED FOR ADAM SCOTT,
CHARTERHOUSE SQUARE.
1846.

1618.

GLASGOW:
EDWARD KHULL, PRINTER TO THE UNIVERSITY.

ADVERTISEMENT TO THE PRESENT EDITION.

THE admitted excellence of Tytler's Elements of General History as a historical class-book, has led the editor to endeavour to render it still more adapted for that purpose, "by giving more amplitude" to the original text where he considered it too brief, and by adding eleven new Sections in Ancient History where the chasm seemed too great, including an outline of Jewish history to the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans in 71 A.C., which was wholly omitted by the Author, and is now included for the first time. These additions are inserted between brackets, and the new Sections are distinguished each by an asterisk (*). In this way the work has been enlarged by fully one-third of its original extent, exclusive of the Continuation which carries down the contemporary history from the Revolution in England in 1688 to the present time, and forms 131 additional pages.

The insertion of new Sections has necessarily changed their original numerical order; and, as history is now generally divided into three periods, this plan has been followed in the present edition, by dividing Modern history into the Middle ages and Modern history proper; the Middle ages forming part second, and Modern history parts third and fourth, the latter part being the Continuation.

In the composition of the Continuation, the example of the Author of the Elements has been followed—speculative refinement has been discarded, and attention directed to the more useful knowledge of historical facts.

LONDON, *July*, 1845.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THE following Work contains the outlines of a course of Lectures on General History, delivered for many years in the university of Edinburgh, and received with a portion of the public approbation amply sufficient to compensate the labours of the author. He began to compose these Elements principally with the view of furnishing an aid to the students attending those lectures; but soon conceived that, by giving a little more amplitude to their composition, he might render the work of more general utility. As now given to the public, he would willingly flatter himself, it may be not only serviceable to youth, in furnishing a regular plan for the prosecution of this most important study, but useful even to those who have acquired a competent knowledge of general history from the perusal of the works of detached historians, and who wish to methodize that knowledge, or even to refresh their memory on material facts and the order of events.

In the composition of these Elements, the author has endeavoured to unite with the detail of facts so much of reflection, as to aid the mind in the formation of rational views of the causes and consequences of events, as well as of the policy of the actors; but he has anxiously guarded against that speculative refinement which has sometimes entered into works of this nature, which, professing to exhibit the philosophy or the spirit of history, are more fitted to display the writer's ingenuity as a theorist, or his talents as a rhetorician, than to instruct the reader in the more useful knowledge of historical facts.

As the progress of the human mind forms a capital object in the study of history, the state of the arts and sciences, the religion, laws, government, and manners of nations, are material parts, even in an elementary work of this nature. The history of literature is a most important article in this study. The author has therefore endeavoured to give to each of these topics its due share of attention; and in that view they are separately treated, in distinct sections, at particular periods.—Of the defects of this work the author is more sensible than perhaps any other person can be. Of any merits it may possess beyond those of simplicity and perspicuity, those are the best judges who have an extensive knowledge of the subject, and who know the difficulty of giving general views, and of analyzing a science so comprehensive and complicated as **UNIVERSAL HISTORY**.

ALEX FRASER TYTLER.

EDINBURGH.

CONTENTS.

(The Sections marked * are additions to the original work.)

INTRODUCTION.

	PAGE
Advantages arising from the study of History, and more particularly from prosecuting it according to a regular plan,	1
Plan of the Course,	3

PART FIRST.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

SECT.		
1.	Earliest authentic accounts of the History of the World—the antediluvian period—the deluge—the formation of Nations,	9
2.	Considerations on the Nature of the first Governments, and on the Laws, Customs, Arts, and Sciences, of the early ages,	14
3.*	History of the Babylonians, Assyrians, and Medes,	17
4.*	On the Government, Religion, Customs and Manners, and Arts and Sciences of the early Babylonians and Assyrians,	21
5.*	History of Egypt to the reign of Psammeticus, B.C. 650,	23
6.	The Antiquity, Government, Arts and Sciences, Religion, and Manners and Customs of the Egyptians,	27
7.	Of the Phœnicians,	33
8.*	History of the Jews from Abraham to the establishment of the Monarchy, 1996—1096 B.C.,	34
9.*	History of the Jews—Civil Constitution of the Jews previous to the Monarchy,	37
10.*	History of the Jews—The Monarchy, until the division of the kingdom, 1096—976 B.C.,	50
11.*	History of the Jews—General view of the two kingdoms of Judah and Israel,	53
12.*	History of the Jews—The kingdom of Judah,	57
13.*	History of the Jews—The kingdom of Israel,	64
14.	History of Greece—First Period, to Cadmus, 1519 B.C.,	67
15.	Reflections on the first and rudest periods of the Grecian History,	73
16.	History of Greece—Second Period—The Argonautic Expedition—Wars of Thebes and of Troy. 1225—1184 B.C.,	75
17.	History of Greece—Establishment of the Greek Colonies,	77
18.	History of Greece—The Republic of Sparta,	79
19.	History of Greece—The Republic of Athens,	82
20.	History of the Persian Empire, from the time of Cyrus to the Conquest by Alexander the Great. 560—330 B.C.,	85
21.*	History of Egypt from the reign of Psammeticus to the Conquest by Alexander. 650—332 B.C.,	95
22.	History of Greece—Third Period. The Persian Wars, from 500—449 B.C.,	97
23.	History of Greece—Age of Pericles—The Peloponnesian War—The Thirty Tyrants at Athens,	101
24	History of Greece—The Theban, Social, Phœcian, and Locrian or Sacred Wars, to the battle of Cheronææ. 382—338 B.C.,	105
25.	History of Macedon, to the death of Philip, 336 B.C.,	110
26.	History of Macedon—Alexander the Great,	112
27.	The Successors of Alexander,	117
28.	Fall and Conquest of Greece,	121

SECT.	PAGE
29. Political Reflections arising from the History of the States of Greece,	124
30. State of the Arts in Greece,	126
31. Of the Greek Poets,	129
32. Of the Greek Historians,	132
33. Of the Greek Philosophers,	134
34.* History of the Jews—From the Babylonian Captivity to the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus. 606 B.C.—71 A.C.,	137
35. History of Rome—Earliest Period,	144
On the Government and State of Rome during the period of the Kings,	153
36. History of Rome—under the Consuls,	155
37. History of Rome—the Law of Volero—the Agrarian Laws,	161
38. History of Rome—the Decemvirate,	164
39. History of Rome—Increase of the Popular Power,	165
40. History of Rome—Conquest of Italy by the Romans,	168
41. History of Carthage,	170
42. History of Sicily,	174
43. The Punic Wars, 264—146,	176
44. The Gracchi, and the Corruption of the Roman Commonwealth,	180
45. The Civil Wars—Second Triumvirate—and Fall of the Republic,	185
46. Considerations on such particulars as mark the Genius and National Character of the Romans,	191
System of Roman Education,	191
47. Of the Progress of Literature among the Romans,	192
48. State of Philosophy among the Romans,	196
49. Of the public and private Manners of the Romans,	197
50. Of the Art of War among the Romans,	199
51. Reflections arising from a View of the Roman History during the Commonwealth,	202
52. Rome under the Emperors. 30 B.C.—54 A.C.,	204
53. The same subject continued. 54—138 A.C.,	209
54. The History of Rome—from the accession of Antoninus to the death of Constantine, 138—337 A.C.,	213
55. State of the Roman Empire at the time of Constantine—his Successors,	218
56. Progress of the Christian Religion, from its Institution, to the Extinction of Paganism in the reign of Theodosius,	223
57. Extinction of the Roman Empire in the West,	225
58. Of the Origin, Manners, and Character, of the Gothic Nations before their establishment in the Roman Empire,	228
59. Of the Manners, Laws, and Government of the Gothic Nations after their establishment in the Roman Empire,	231
60. Method of studying Ancient History,	234
Comparative View of Ancient and Modern Geography,	239

PART SECOND.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

SECT.	PAGE
1.* Fall of the Western Roman Empire,	261
2. The Eastern Roman Empire—Of Arabia, and the Saracens,	264
3. Monarchy of the Franks,	269
4. On the State of France during the Merovingian race of its Kings,	272
5. Charlemagne—The new Empire of the West,	275
6. Manners, Government, and Customs of the Age of Charlemagne,	277
7. View of the Affairs of the Church preceding the Age of Charlemagne,	280
8. Empire of the West under the successors of Charlemagne,	282
9. Empire of the East during the Eighth and Ninth Centuries,	285

CONTENTS.

vii

SECT.	PAGE
10. The progress of Ecclesiastical power, and the state of the Church from the Fifth to the end of the Eleventh Century, . . .	288
11. Of the Saracens in the Eighth and Ninth Centuries, . . .	295
12. Empire of the West and Italy in the Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Centuries, . . .	297
13. History of Britain from its earliest period to the Norman Conquest, . . .	299
14. Of the Government, Laws, and Manners of the Anglo-Saxons, . . .	303
15. State of Europe during the Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Centuries, . . .	308
16. History of England in the Eleventh, Twelfth, and part of the Thirteenth Centuries, . . .	310
17. The Crusades, or Holy Wars, . . .	319
18. Of Chivalry and Romance, . . .	324
19. State of Europe in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries, . . .	326
20. Revolution of Switzerland, . . .	329
21. State of Europe (continued) in the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and part of the Fifteenth Centuries, . . .	331
22. History of England in the Thirteenth Century, . . .	333
23. History of Scotland to the Fourteenth Century, . . .	335
24. History of England in the Fourteenth Century, . . .	338
25. England and France in the Fifteenth Century.—State of Manners, . . .	341
26. Decline and Fall of the Greek Empire, . . .	343
27. Government and Policy of the Turkish Empire, . . .	345
28. France and Italy at the end of the Fifteenth Century, . . .	346
29. History of Spain in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries, . . .	349
30. History of England from the middle to the end of the Fifteenth Century.—Civil Wars of York and Lancaster, . . .	350
31. History of Scotland from the beginning of the Fourteenth Century to the death of James V., 1306—1513, . . .	355
32. Of the Ancient Constitution of the Scottish Government, . . .	358
33. View of the Progress of Literature and Science in Europe, from the Revival of Letters to the end of the Fifteenth Century, . . .	361
34. View of the Progress of Commerce in Europe before the Portuguese Discoveries, . . .	364
35. Discoveries of the Portuguese in the Fifteenth Century, and their effects on the Commerce of Europe, . . .	367

PART THIRD.

MODERN HISTORY.

SECT.	PAGE
1.* Introduction—View of the state of Europe at the end of the Fifteenth Century, . . .	373
2. France, Spain, and Italy, in the end of the Fifteenth and beginning of the Sixteenth Century, . . .	375
3. Germany and France in the Reigns of Charles V. and Francis I., . . .	378
4. Observations on the Constitution of the German Empire, . . .	381
5. Of the Reformation in Germany and Switzerland, and the Revolution in Denmark and Sweden, . . .	383
6. Of the Reformation in England, under Henry VIII. and his Successors, . . .	386
7. Of the Discovery and Conquest of America, . . .	387
8. Possessions of the other European Nations in America, . . .	390
9. Of the State of the Fine Arts in Europe, in the Age of Leo X., . . .	391
10. Of the Ottoman power in the Sixteenth Century, . . .	395
11. State of Persia and other Asiatic Kingdoms, in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries, . . .	396
12. History of India, . . .	397
13. Ancient State of India; Manners, Laws, Arts and Sciences, and Religion of the Hindoos, . . .	399

SECT.	PAGE
14. Of China and Japan,	402
15. Of the Antiquity of the Empire of China.—State of Arts and Sciences, Manners, Government, Laws,	403
16. M. Bailly's Theory of the Origin of the Sciences among the Nations of Asia,	407
17. Reign of Philip II. of Spain.—Revolution of the Netherlands and Establishment of the Republic of Holland,	410
18. Of the Constitution and Government of the United Provinces,	412
19. Reign of Philip II. continued,	414
20. State of France in the end of the Sixteenth Century—under Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV.,	415
21. History of England and of Scotland in the Reigns of Elizabeth and Mary Queen of Scots,	418
22. History of Scotland in the Reign of James VI., and of Great Britain in the Reigns of James I. and Charles I.,	422
23. The Commonwealth of England,	429
24. The Reigns of Charles II. and James II.,	432
25. On the British Constitution,	437
26. Of the public Revenue of Great Britain,	443
27. History of France under Louis XIII.,	445
28. Spain under Philip III. and Philip IV.—Constitution of Portugal and of Spain,	446
29. Affairs of Germany from the Abdication of Charles V. to the Peace of Westphalia,	448
30. France under Louis XIV.,	449
31. On the Constitution of France under the Monarchy,	454
32. Of Peter the Great of Muscovy, and Charles XII. of Sweden,	456
33. A View of the Progress of Science and Literature in Europe,—from the end of the Fifteenth to the end of the Seventeenth Century,	462

PART FOURTH.

MODERN HISTORY,

Continued from the Revolution in England in 1688 to the present time.

SECT.	PAGE.
1.* Of England, from the Revolution of 1688 to the death of George II., 1760.—Affairs of Ireland,	467
2.* Of the European System from 1700 to 1740.—War of the Succession in Spain.—Of the Northern States of Europe,	496
3.* Of the European System from 1740 to 1786.—Of the Southern European States.—The Seven Years' War.—Of the Northern European States,	504
4.* Of the British Empire in India,	517
5.* Of England, from the Peace of Paris to the Conclusion of the American War,	528
6.* Of the Political System of Europe from 1786 to 1821. The French Revolution.—The French Empire.—Restoration of the Political System of Europe.—Congress of Vienna,	537
7.* Of England from the Termination of the American war in 1783 to the end of the reign of George III., in 1820.—Affairs of Ireland,	576
8.* Contemporary History of the Period after the Congress of Vienna,	588

Table of Chronology,	598
--------------------------------	-----

INTRODUCTION.

1. THE value of any science is to be estimated according to its tendency to promote improvement, either in private virtue, or in those qualities which render man extensively useful in society. Some objects of pursuit have a secondary utility; in furnishing rational amusement, which, relieving the mind at intervals from the fatigue of serious occupation, invigorates and prepares it for fresh exertion. It is the perfection of any science to unite these advantages, to promote the advancement of public and private virtue, and to supply such a degree of amusement as to supersede the necessity of recurring to frivolous pursuits for the sake of relaxation. Under this description falls the science of History.

2. "History," says Dionysius of Halicarnassus, is "philosophy teaching by examples." The superior efficacy of example to precept is universally acknowledged. All the laws of morality and rules of conduct are verified by experience, and are constantly submitted to its test and examination. History, which adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others, furnishes innumerable proofs by which we may verify all the precepts of morality and of prudence.

3. History, besides its general advantages, has a distinct species of utility to different men, according to their several ranks in society and occupations in life.

4. In this country it is an indispensable duty of every man of liberal education, to be acquainted, in a certain degree, with the science of politics; and History is the school of politics. It opens to us the springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions, and fall of empires. It points out the reciprocal influence of government and of national manners; it dissipates prejudices, nourishes the love of our country, and directs to the best means of its improvement. It illustrates equally the blessings of political union and the miseries of faction; the danger, on the one hand, of uncontrolled liberty, and, on the other, the debasing influence of despotic power.

5. It is necessary that the study of History should be prosecuted according to a regular plan; for this science, more perhaps than any other, is liable to perversion from its proper use. With some it is no better than an idle amusement; with others,

it is the food of vanity; with a third class, it fosters the prejudices of party and leads to political bigotry. It is dangerous for those who, even with the best intentions, seek for historical knowledge, to pursue the study without a guide; for no science has been so little methodised. The sources of prejudice are infinite; and the mind of youth should not be left undirected amidst the erring, the partial, and contradictory representations of historians. Besides the importance of being able to discriminate truth from falsehood, the attention ought to be directed only to useful truths. Much danger arises from the perusal of memoirs, collections of anecdotes, &c., for many of those works exhibit the most depraved pictures, weaken our confidence in virtue, and present the most unfavourable views of human nature.

6. There are many difficulties which attend the attempt of forming a proper plan of study, and giving an instructive view of General History. Utility is to be reconciled with amusement, prejudices are to be encountered, variety of taste to be consulted, political opinions balanced, judgment and decision exercised on topics keenly controverted. The proposer of such a plan ought, therefore, to be possessed equally of firmness of mind and moderation of sentiment. In many cases he must abandon popularity for the calm approbation of his own conscience. Disregarding every partial and inferior consideration, he must direct his view solely to the proper end of all education, *the forming of good men and of good citizens.*

7. The object and general purpose of the following Course is to exhibit a progressive view of the state of mankind, from the earliest ages of which we have any authentic accounts down to the close of the seventeenth century; to delineate the origin of states and of empires, the great outlines of their history, the revolutions which they have undergone, the causes which have contributed to their rise and grandeur, and operated to their decline and extinction.

For these purposes it is necessary to bestow particular attention on the manners of nations, their laws, the nature of their governments, their religion, their intellectual improvements, and their progress in the arts and sciences.

PLAN OF THE COURSE.

Two opposite methods have been followed in giving academical Lectures on the Study of History; the one exhibiting a strict chronological arrangement of events, upon the plan of Turselline's Epitome; the other a series of disquisitions on the various heads or titles of public law, the principles of government, and the doctrines of Political Economy; illustrated by examples drawn from ancient and modern history. Both these methods are liable to objection: the former furnishes only a dry chronicle of all the remarkable events since the creation, which nothing connects together but the order of time; the latter is insufficient for the most important purposes of history—the tracing events to their causes, the detection of the springs of human actions, the display of the progress of society, and of the rise and fall of states and empires: finally, by confining history to the exemplification of the doctrines of politics, we lose all view of the gradual progress of manners, the advancement of man from barbarism to civilization; we see nothing of the connexion of states and empires, and the influence they exercised on each other: above all, we lose entirely the obvious advantage of history,—its utility as a school of morals.

In the following Lectures we hold a middle course between these extremes, and endeavour, by remedying the imperfections of each, to unite, if possible, the advantages of both.

While so much regard is paid to the chronological order of events, as is necessary for showing the progress of mankind in society, and communicating just ideas of the state of the world in all the different ages to which authentic history extends, we shall, in the delineation of the rise and fall of empires and their revolutions, pay more attention to the connexion of *subject* than that of *time*.

In this view we must reject the common method of arranging General History according to epochs or eras, as it is a matter of no importance to record in the mind the precise date of any remarkable fact as it stands in a table of chronology. When the world is viewed at any period, either of ancient or of modern history, we generally observe one nation or empire predominant, to whom all the rest bear, as it were, an under part, and to whose history we find that the principal events in the annals of other

nations may be referred from some natural connexion. This predominant empire or state it is proposed to exhibit to view as the principal object, whose history, therefore, is to be more fully delineated, while the rest are only incidentally touched when they come to have a natural connexion with the principal.

[The history of the Jews, so important as being the venerable basis of the Christian religion, and on that account deserving of the most profound and attentive study, has been sketched at considerable length in the present edition; although during the chief periods of their history they were a small and sequestered people, whose annals record only their connexions or their hostile differences with the petty tribes which surrounded them, or the nations in their immediate neighbourhood.]

[We often resort to the sacred writings for detached facts illustrative of the manners of ancient nations, as we have no records of equal authority with them. They ascend to a period antecedent to the formation of regular states or communities. They are long prior to the authentic annals of profane nations. Moses conducted the Israelites out of Egypt 1491 years before the birth of Christ, according to the chronology of Usher; whilst Sanchthoniatho, supposed the most ancient of the profane writers, lived several years after the Trojan war (B. C. 1184), and the fragments which pass under his name are of the most doubtful authority; so that the books of Moses are, therefore, our only lights on those distant and dark ages of the infancy of the human race.]

In the ancient world, among the profane nations, the Greeks are the earliest people who make a distinguished figure, and whose history is at the same time authentic. It is, therefore, important to trace their history to its origin.

The Greeks owed their civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians. The Grecian history is, therefore, properly introduced by a short account of these nations, and of the Assyrians, their rivals, conquered at one time by the Egyptians, and conquerors afterwards of them in their turn.

The Greeks then come to fill up the whole of the picture, and we endeavour to present an accurate delineation of their independent states, the singular constitution of the two great republics of Sparta and Athens, and the outlines of their history, down to the period of the Persian war, commenced by Darius, the son of Hystaspes, and prosecuted under his successors Xerxes and Artaxerxes, B. C. 492—424.

The war of Greece with Persia induces a short account of the preceding periods of the history of that nation, the rise of the Persian monarchy, the nature of its government, manners, and religion.

The Grecian history is pursued through all the revolutions of the nation, till Greece becomes a province of the Roman empire, B. C. 148.

Political reflections applicable to the history of the states of Greece—progress of the Greeks in the arts—of the Greek poets, historians, philosophers.

Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention.

Origin of the Romans—Nature of their government under the kings—Easy substitution of the consular for the regal dignity—Subsequent changes in the constitution—Progress to a democracy—Extension of the Roman arms—Conquest of Italy—Wars with foreign nations.

The Punic wars open a collateral view to the history of Carthage and of Sicily. We then trace the success of the Roman arms in Asia, Macedonia, and Greece—the opulence of the republic from her conquests—and the corruption of her manners—then the civil wars and ruin of the commonwealth, B. C. 30.

At this period we then devote some time to the examination of those particulars which mark the genius and national spirit of the Romans—their system of education—laws—literary character—art of war—public and private manners.

We then resume the outlines of the Roman history under the emperors—the artful policy by which the first emperors disguised their absolute authority—the decline of the ambitious character of the Romans—their easy submission to the entire loss of civil liberty—the military spirit purposely abased by the emperors—the empire divided becomes a languid body without internal vigour—the Gothic nations pour down from the north—Italy conquered successively by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, and Lombards—extinction of the western empire, A. C. 476.

The manners, genius, laws, and government of the Gothic nations, form an important object of inquiry, from their influence on the manners and policy of the modern European kingdoms.

IN the delineation of Modern History, the leading objects of attention are more various; the scene is oftener changed; nations, too, which for a while occupy the chief attention, become for a time subordinate, and afterwards reassume their rank as principal; yet the same plan is pursued as in the department of Ancient History; the picture is occupied only by one great object at a time—the history of the predominant people—to which all the rest, at the time, hold an inferior rank, and other nations are taken notice of, only when connected with the principal.

Upon the fall of the Western Empire, the Saracens are the first to distinguish themselves by the extension of their conquests and the splendour of their dominion.

While the Saracens extend, by their arms, the religion of Mahomet in the East and in Africa, a new empire of the West

is founded by Charlemagne—The rise and progress of the monarchy of the Franks—The origin of the feudal system—State of the European manners in the age of Charlemagne—Government, arts and sciences, literature.

As collateral objects of attention, during this period, we survey the remains of the Roman empire in the east—The conquests and settlements of the Normans—The foundation and progress of the temporal dominion of the church of Rome—The separation of the Latin and Greek churches—The affairs of Italy—and The conquest of Spain by the Saracens.

The conquest of England by the Normans (A. D. 1066), solicits our attention to the history of Britain. Retrospective view of the British history, from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government in England—Observations on the government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons.

Collateral view of the state of the continental kingdoms of Europe, during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries—France under the Capetian race of monarchs—Conquests of the Normans in Italy and Sicily—State of the northern kingdoms of Europe—The Eastern empire—Empire of Germany—Disputes of supremacy between the popes and the emperors.

The history of Britain still the principal object of attention—England under the kings of the Norman line, and the first princes of the Plantagenet branch. The conquest of Ireland under Henry II. introduces an anticipated progressive view of the political connexion between England and Ireland down to the present time. As we proceed in the delineation of the British history, we note particularly those circumstances which mark the growth of the English constitution.

At this period (A. C. 1095) all the kingdoms of Europe join in the crusades—A brief account is given of those enterprises—moral and political effects of the crusades on the nations of Europe—Origin of chivalry, and rise of romantic fiction.

Short connected sketch of the state of the European nations after the crusades—Rise of the house of Austria—Decline of the feudal government in France—Establishment of the Swiss republics—Disorders in the Papedom—Council of Constance.

The history of Britain resumed—England under Henry III. and Edward I.—The conquest of Wales—The history of Scotland at this period intimately connected with that of England—View of the Scottish history from Malcolm Canmore to Robert Bruce—State of both kingdoms during the reigns of Edward II. and III.—The history of France connected with that of Britain—France itself won by Henry V.

We then turn to the state of the East, which at this period (A. C. 1216—1422), affords the most interesting object of attention—The progress of the Ottoman arms retarded for a while by the conquests of Tamerlane and of Scanderberg—The Turks prosecute their victories under Mahomet the Great, to the total

extinction of the Constantinopolitan empire (A. C. 1453)—The constitution and policy of the Turkish empire.

Returning westward, we see France, in this age, emancipating herself from the feudal servitude—and Spain, by the union of Arragon and Castile, and the fall of the kingdom of the Moors, become one monarchy under Ferdinand and Isabella (A. C. 1492).

The history of Britain is resumed—sketch of the history of England down to the reign of Henry VIII. (A. C. 1492—1509)—Of Scotland during the reigns of the five Jameses—Delineation of the ancient constitution of the Scottish government.

The close of the fifteenth century is a most important era in the history of Europe. Learning and the sciences underwent, at that time, a very rapid improvement, and, after ages of darkness, shone out at once with surprising lustre. A connected view is presented of the progress of literature in Europe, from its revival down to this period. In the same age the advancement of navigation, and the course to India by the Cape of Good Hope, explored by the Portuguese, affect the commerce of all the European kingdoms.

After a short survey of the northern states of Europe, we direct our attention to the age of Charles V. (A. C. 1516—1555), which unites in one connected view the affairs of Germany, of Spain, of France, of England, and of Italy. The discovery of the new world, the Reformation in Germany and in England, and the splendour of the fine arts under the pontificate of Leo X., when they attained to their utmost perfection, render this period one of the most interesting in the annals of mankind.

The pacification of Europe, by the treaty of Catteau Cambresis (A. C. 1559), allows us for a while to turn our attention to the state of Asia. A short sketch is given of the modern history of Persia, and the state of the other kingdoms of Asia, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; the history of India; the manners, laws, arts and sciences, and religion of the Hindoos; the history of China and Japan; the antiquity of the Chinese empire, its manners, laws, government, and attainments in the arts and sciences.

Returning to Europe, the attention is directed to the state of the continental kingdoms in the age of Philip II. of Spain, distinguished by the revolt of the Netherlands and the establishment of the republic of Holland—France and England next present a various and animated picture.

England under Elizabeth (A. C. 1558—1603)—The progress of the Reformation in Scotland—The distracted reign of Mary queen of Scots—The history of Britain pursued without interruption down to the Revolution, in 1688, and there closed by a sketch of the progress of the English constitution, and an examination of its nature at this period, when it becomes fixed and determined.

The history of the southern continental kingdoms is brought

down to the end of the reign of Louis XIV.; of the northern, to the conclusion of the reigns of Charles XII. of Sweden, and of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy.

We complete this view of Universal History to these periods, by a survey of the state of the arts and sciences, and of the progress of literature in Europe, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The chronology observed in this view of Universal History is that of Archbishop Usher, which is founded on the Hebrew text of the sacred writings; and this, because it has been most generally adopted by the writers both of our own and of foreign nations.

The computation of time from the deluge, is according to the number of years before and after Christ. Besides the fact of its being certain, it possesses the advantage of giving us a clear and precise notion of the interval that separates us from the incidents recorded, which it is impossible to obtain by the use of any other era of the world.

History is generally divided into Ancient and Modern.

I. Ancient History commences with the creation of the world, B. C. 4004, and terminates with the fall of the Western empire, A. C. 476. It may be conveniently subdivided into four periods:

1. The *Antediluvian*, comprising the detail of events until the deluge, in the 1656 year of the world, and B. C. 2348.

2. The *Fabulous* or *Heroic*, commencing with the settlement of Noah in the plains of Shinar, the formation of the first cities and states, including the fabulous ages of Greece and Rome.

3. The *Historic*, which comprises the period between the era of the Olympiads, B. C. 776, and the destruction of Carthage by the Romans, B. C. 146.

4. The *Roman*, from the latter period to the fall of the Roman empire in the West, A. C. 476.

II. Modern History is now generally divided into

1. The *Middle Ages*, from the fall of the Roman empire in the west and the establishment of the Gothic kingdom of Italy in 476, A. C., to the invasion of Italy by Charles VIII. of France in 1494; and

2. *Modern History proper*, from 1494 when the present European Political or States-system commenced to the present time, of which the History may be followed as a whole.

PART FIRST.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

FROM THE CREATION, 4004 B. C., TO THE FALL OF THE
WESTERN EMPIRE, A. D. 476.

SECTION I.

THE CREATION—THE ANTEDILUVIAN PERIOD—THE DELUGE—
THE DISPERSION OF MANKIND—THE FORMATION OF NATIONS.

1. It is a difficult task to delineate the state of mankind in the earliest ages of the world. We want information sufficient to give us positive ideas on the subject; but as man advances in civilization, and in proportion as history becomes useful and important, its certainty increases and its materials are more abundant.

2. [The science of geology, which was wholly unknown to the ancients, is now exposing to our view the remains of huge tropical animals, in our own and other northern kingdoms, where they could not have been resident, with a deposit of only a few feet of earth over them, and confirming in a remarkable manner the relation of the Hebrew historian, that the last great change of the earth's surface was produced by a flood.]

3. [The Hebrew text of the sacred writings informs us that a period of 1656 years elapsed between the creation of the world and the deluge. There is no subject concerning which there have been greater differences of opinion than that of the creation. The only account of the antediluvian period is contained in the first six chapters of Genesis; the truth and credibility of which is proved by the most striking testimonies of natural and civil history. The various and distinct traditions which have prevailed, in almost every nation, respecting the first ages of the world, bear so close a resemblance to the facts mentioned in the Scriptures, that we can account for them only on the supposition of their having originated from one common source. The idea of a chaos—and of the creation of all things by the agency of a supreme mind—the arbitrary division of time into weeks—the formation of Man in the moral image of his Creator—his temptation, fall, and consequent depravation of human nature—the longevity of the antediluvian patriarchs—all these subjects, or others of a kindred nature, are either expressly alluded to by

ancient historians or shadowed forth in the legendary fragments which still remain.]

4. Various notions have been formed with respect to the population of the antediluvian world and its physical appearance; but as these are rather matters of theory than of fact, they scarcely fall within the province of history; and they are of the less consequence, that we are certain the state of those antediluvian ages could have had no material influence on the times which succeeded them.

5. [The genealogy, birth, and death of the antediluvian patriarchs is narrated with conciseness and minuteness, in the fifth chapter of Genesis, which may be thus tabularized:

	Generations.	Born in A. M.	Age at birth of son.	Died aged	Died in A. M.	Died B. C.
1	Adam, . .	created		930	930	3074
2	Seth, . . .	130	130	912	1042	2962
3	Enos, . .	235	105	905	1140	2864
4	Cainan, . .	325	90	910	1235	2769
5	Mahalaleel,	395	70	895	1290	2914
6	Jared, . .	460	65	962	1422	2582
7	Enoch, . .	622	162	*365	*987	*3017
8	Methuselah,	687	65	969	1656	2350
9	Lamech, .	874	187	777	1651	2353
10	Noah, . .	1056	182	—	—	—

6. [The extended duration of human life in the antediluvian period favoured the transmission of information respecting the creation of man and his subsequent history. Enos, the grandson of Adam, lived eighty-four years after the birth of Noah, and seven generations were alive in his time. Noah, his wife, his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japhet, and their wives, in all eight persons, were selected to repeople the earth. These would relate to their descendants the circumstances attending their remarkable preservation, which being transmitted in succession to after generations, the tradition of the deluge was everywhere preserved. Whilst the paucity of mankind, and the vast tracts of uninhabited lands in the first ages, together with the late invention of the arts and sciences, agree in disproving, as far as possible, the fabulous pretensions to antiquity claimed by eastern nations.]

7. [The Egyptians, Phœnicians, Hindoos, Greeks, Persians, Druids, the Chinese, and even the American Indians, have traditions of the deluge; but each nation relates it after its own manner. Many commemorative emblems of that event have been handed down by antiquity, the most complete being a number of medals of *Corinth*, which represent very distinctly the

* Translated, or taken from the earth before death.

ark with the infant rising into new life after having been preserved by the fish (the ark). On those of Tyre is seen the emblem of a serpent enfolding an egg, or a dove brooding over it. The one to signify a renewal of life from a state of death—a serpent by annually casting its skin, was supposed to renew its life; and the other, denoting the hatching of the egg—an emblem of the opening of the ark, and the disclosing to light whatever was contained within.]

8. [The books of Moses afford the only authentic history of the ages immediately following the deluge. We are informed that the ark rested, when the waters subsided, on the mountains of Ararat, in Armenia, from which Noah and his family journeyed eastward, and settled in the plain of Shinar, or in Chaldea, between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, where they founded the city of Babel or Babylon. In consequence of their impious attempt to build a tower whose top might reach to heaven, with a view to make themselves a name and prevent their dispersion, their Creator interposed and confounded their language, which forced them to disperse “from thence over all the face of the earth.” The building of the tower of Babel is supposed to have been commenced about 114 years after the deluge, or B. C. 2234. Noah lived after the deluge 350 years, and died aged 950, in the time of Abraham, the tenth in descent from him, in the year of the world 2006, or B. C. 1998.]

9. [The descendants of Shem and Ham are considered to have peopled the great plain north and west of the Persian Gulf, between that gulf and the Indian Ocean on the east, and the Arabian Gulf and the Mediterranean sea on the west, with the northern coast of Africa; comprehending Assyria, Babylonia or Chaldea, Syria, Palestine, Arabia, Egypt, and Libya; whilst the descendants of Japheth peopled Asia Minor, the northern parts of Asia, about the Euxine and Caspian, and all Europe. The Germans, according to Tacitus (*De Mor. Germ.* 2.), had a tradition, that Tuesco, a god sprung from the earth, and his son Mannus (Man), who had three sons, was the founder of their nation; which undoubtedly refers to Noah and his three sons.]

10. [Until the confusion of tongues at Babel the whole earth was of one language and of one or the same speech; which was most probably the Chaldee. After that event, it is easy to account for the differences of dialect or of language that would arise. Many languages now spoken, can be traced to one common and primitive stock; and Sir W. Jones has demonstrated, that three great branches of language are sufficient to account for all the varieties extant.]

11. [The principal languages or dialects used by the descendants of Shem and Ham, are known to us under the names of Chaldee or Chaldaic, Aramean, Syriac, Hebrew, Arabic, Ethiopic, Samaritan, and Coptic. Those of the Japhetic family are the Celtic, Teutonic, Gothic, Greek, Latin, and numerous other

languages that have been formed in the long period elapsed since the dispersion. The name Kelt or Celt, which signifies *woods-men*, was given to the primitive inhabitants of the west of Europe by the Greeks, who were descended from the same ancestors. The Celts spread over Europe; and afterwards, being pressed forward by successive migrations from the east, until checked by the ocean, they made their stand in the mountainous districts and in the islands, where their descendants are found at the present day. The Celts, therefore, may be considered as the first colonists of Britain, Ireland, France, Spain, Jutland, &c.]

12. [The genealogy of the descendants of Shem, to the birth of Abraham, is narrated in Genesis xi. 10—26. The age of each at the birth of his son is given, and the number of years they lived after, which being added together, gives the duration of their lives. Then, assuming the deluge to have happened in the year of the world 1656, and B. C. 2348, the following tabular account of the ten patriarchs of the second age of the world is obtained:

		Born in A. M.	B. C.	Age at birth of son.	Lived after birth of son.	Died, aged	Died A. M.	Died B. C.
1	Shem, . .	1558	2446	100	500	600	2158	1846
2	Arphaxad, .	1658	2346	35	403	438	2096	1908
3	Salah, . .	1693	2311	30	403	433	2126	1878
4	Eber, . .	1723	2281	34	430	464	2187	1817
5	Peleg(divided),	1757	2247	30	209	239	1996	2008
6	Reu, . . .	1787	2217	32	207	239	2026	1978
7	Serug, . .	1819	2185	30	200	230	2049	1955
8	Nahor, . .	1849	2155	29	119	148	1997	2007
9	Terah, . .	1878	2126	70	135	205	2083	1921
10	Abraham, .	1948	2056	100	75	175	2123	1881

13. [The era of the dispersion, or migration of mankind from the plain of Shinar, is equally uncertain with that of the deluge. According to Genesis x. 25, the earth was divided in the days of Peleg; but as the Hebrew chronology, dating from his birth, only gives 101 years from the deluge, that space of time would not have allowed any considerable increase of the inhabitants of the earth. If the name Peleg, or *divided*, was afterwards given to him as a commemorative appellation, about 238 years could be added, which approximates to the era of the Samaritan text; according to which, the dispersion commenced about 400 years after the deluge. Soon after the dispersion, Nimrod (*rebel*), the son of Cush, the elder son of Ham, "began to be a mighty one in the earth," and to extend his authority over Erech,* Accad,† and Calneh,‡ in Shinar, which gave occasion to the proverb,

* Aracca.

† Nisibis.

‡ Ctesiphon.

"Like Nimrod the mighty hunter before the Lord;" that is, a warrior and conqueror,*—and, probably, to the appellation "Nimrod," which signifies *rebel*, for having seized Shinar, and driven out Asshur and others. Asshur on going forth, ascended the Tigris, built Nineveh, Rehoboth, and Calah; whilst Mizraim is supposed to have settled in Egypt. The agreement between Abraham and his nephew, Lot, exhibits the manner in which nomade tribes separated, when the families and herds became too numerous to wander together. Gen. xiii. 5—9.

14. According to the best authorities, the following nations were colonized by the tribes under the leadership of the sons of

SHEM.

ELAM.	ASSHUR.	ARPHAXAD.	LUD.	ARAM.
Father of the Persians.	Father of the Assyrians and founder of Nineveh.	Abraham.	? Lydians.	Father of the Syrians.
		Isaac.		
		Jacob.	Ishmael.	
		Father of the Israelites.	From whom the Arabians descend.	
		Esau.		

HAM.

CUSH.	MIZRAIM.	PHUT.	CANAAN.
Nimrod, the founder of the Babylonian empire.	Meso, Father of the Egyptians.	? Libyans or Nubians.	Sidon, Founder of the city of that name, in Phœnicia.

JAPHET.

GOMER.	MAGOG.	MADAI.	JAVAN.
? Germans.	Gog and Magog, the central nations north of the Caucasus, the Caspian Sea, &c.	The Medes.	Elisa. Tarsis. Chittim. Dodanim.
			? Spaniards. Greeks and Romans.
TUBAL.	MESHECH.	TIRAS.	
? Tartars.	Muscovites.	Thracians.	

* Ezekiel (xxiii. 30. *Vulg.*) gives the name of hunters to all tyrants.

SECTION II.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE NATURE OF THE FIRST GOVERNMENTS,
AND ON THE LAWS, CUSTOMS, ARTS AND SCIENCES, OF THE
EARLY AGES.

1. THE earliest government is the patriarchal, which subsists in the pastoral state of society. The family of Abraham and Jacob, in Asia, and the clans of the Celts, in Scotland, exhibit to us the manner in which societies and nations were originally formed.

The patriarchal government leads by an easy progress to the monarchical. The building of cities and the cultivation of the soil rendered it necessary that individuals should be protected in the enjoyment of the property they had produced. Associations were formed, and laws agreed upon, which one individual was empowered to enforce.

The first monarchies must have been very weak, and their territory extremely limited. The idea of security precedes that of conquest. In forming our notions of the extent of the first monarchies, we are deceived by the word "king," which, according to modern ideas, is connected with an extent of territory and a proportional power. The kings in Scripture are no more than the chiefs of tribes. There were five kings in the vale of Sodom: Jos. x. Joshua defeated in his wars thirty-one kings, and Adonibezek threescore and ten: Judges i.

The regal office was in all probability at first elective. The transmission of the sceptre to the heir of the last monarch, arises in time, from the experience of the mischiefs attending frequent elections and the disorders occasioned by ambitious men aspiring at that dignity.

The first ideas of conquest must have proceeded from a people in the state of shepherds, who, necessarily changing their pastures, would, probably, make incursions on the appropriated territory of their neighbours. Such were the Arabian or Phœnician invaders, who, under the name of shepherd-kings, conquered Egypt. But kingdoms so founded could have little duration. Laws and good policy, essential to the stability of kingdoms, are the fruit of intellectual refinement, and arise only in a state of society considerably advanced in civilization.

The progress from barbarism to civilization is slow; because every step in the progress is the result of necessity, after the experience of an error, or the strong feeling of a want.

2. *Origin of Laws.*—Certain political writers have supposed that in the infancy of society penal laws must have been extremely mild. We presume the contrary to have been rather the case; as the more barbarous the people, the stronger must be the bonds to restrain them; and history confirms the supposition, in the ancient laws of the Jews, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and Gauls.

Among the earliest laws of all states are those regarding marriage; for the institution of marriage is coeval with the formation of society. The first sovereigns of all states are said to have instituted marriage—Menes, the first king of Egypt; Fohi, the first sovereign of China; Cecrops, the first legislator of the Greeks. The earliest laws of various nations provided encouragements for matrimony.

Among the ancient nations the husband purchased his wife by money or personal services. Among the Assyrians the marriageable women were put up to auction; and the price obtained for the more beautiful was assigned as a dowry to the more homely. It must, however, be added, that among all the considerable nations of inner Asia the paternal government of every household was corrupted by polygamy. Where that custom exists a good political constitution is impossible; fathers, being converted into domestic despots, are ready to pay the same abject obedience to their sovereign that they exact from their family and dependents in their domestic economy.

The laws of succession are next in order to those of marriage. The father had the absolute power in the division of his estate. But primogeniture was understood to confer certain rights.

Laws arise necessarily and imperceptibly from the condition of society; and each particular law may be traced from the state of manners, or the political emergency which gave it birth. Hence we perceive the intimate connexion between history and jurisprudence, and the light which they must necessarily throw upon each other. The laws of a country are best interpreted from its history; and its uncertain history is best elucidated by its ancient laws.

3. *Earliest methods of authenticating Contracts.*—Before the invention of writing, contracts, testaments, sales, marriages, and the like, were transacted in public. The Jewish and the Grecian histories furnish many examples. Some barbarous nations authenticate their bargains by exchanging symbols or tallies. The Peruvians accomplished most of the purposes of writing by knotted cords of various colours, termed *Quipos*. The Mexicans communicated intelligence to a distance by painting. Other nations used an abridged mode of painting, or hieroglyphics. Before the use of writing the Egyptians used hieroglyphics for transmitting and recording knowledge; after writing, they employed it for veiling or concealing it from the vulgar.

4. *Methods for recording Historical Facts, and publishing Laws.*—Poetry and song were the first vehicles of history, and the earliest mode of promulgating laws. The songs of the bards record a great deal of ancient history: the laws of many of the ancient nations were composed in verse.

Stones, rude and sculptured, *tumuli* and mounds of earth, are the monuments of history among a barbarous people; and columns, triumphal arches, coins, and medals, among a more

refined. These likewise illustrate the progress of manners and of the arts.

5 *Religious Institutions*.—Among the earliest institutions of all nations, are those which regard religious worship. The sentiment of religion is deeply rooted in the human mind. An uninstructed savage will infer the existence of a God, and his attributes, from the general order and mechanism of nature; and even its temporary irregularities lead to religious veneration of the unknown Power which conducts it.

Before conceiving the idea of a Being utterly imperceptible to his senses, a savage would naturally seek that Being in the most striking objects of sense to which he owed his most apparent benefits. The sun, extending his beneficial influence over nature, was among the earliest objects of worship. The fire presented a symbol of the sun. The other celestial bodies naturally attracted their share of veneration, and the storm and the tempest had also their votaries.

The symbolical mode of writing led to many peculiarities of the idolatrous worship of the ancient nations. Animals, symbolical of the attributes of Deity, became gods themselves. The same god, represented by different animals, was supposed to have changed himself into different forms. The gratitude and veneration for men whose lives have been eminently useful, joined to the belief of the soul's immortality, led to the *apotheosis* of heroes. Many excellent reflections on idolatry and polytheism are found in the apocryphal book called "The Wisdom of Solomon."

The priesthood was anciently exercised by the chief or monarch; but as an empire became extensive, the monarch exercised this office by his delegates; and hence an additional source of veneration for the priesthood. The priests were the framers and the administrators of the laws.

6. *Arts and Sciences of the Ancient Nations*.—The useful arts are the offspring of necessity; the sciences are the fruits of ease and leisure. The construction of huts, of weapons of war, and of hunting, are the earliest arts. Agriculture is not practised till the tribe becomes stationary, and property is defined and secured.

The sciences arise in a cultivated society, where individuals enjoy that leisure which invites to study and speculation. The priests, maintained in that condition by the monarch, were the earliest cultivators of science. The Egyptian science was confined to the priests. Astronomy, which is among the earliest of the sciences, owed its origin probably to superstition. Medicine was among the early sciences. All rude nations have a pharmacy of their own, equal in general to their wants. Luxury, creating new and more complex diseases, requires a profounder knowledge of medicine and of the animal economy.

SECTION III.*

OF THE BABYLONIANS, ASSYRIANS, AND MEDES,

Until their Conquest by Cyrus, 538 B. C.

1. [BABYLONIA included the extensive plain between the Tigris and Euphrates, where Belus or Babylon was situated, now called Irak Arabia. The most ancient names of this plain were Shinar and Padan-Aram; then Babylonia, and afterwards Chaldea, from the name of the people that conquered it. The Greeks called it Mesopotamia, the country between the two rivers. The soil was extremely rich, and irrigated by the inundations of the Tigris and Euphrates, more especially the latter.

ASSYRIA comprehended the country to the north of the Tigris, now called Khurdistan; but the Greeks included under that name Babylonia and all the adjacent countries.

MEDIA extended to the east of the Caspian Sea, to Armenia on the west, and Persia proper on the south, including the provinces now called Shirvan, Adserbijan, Ghilan, Masanderan, and Irak Adjemi. It covered a territory larger than Spain, and was one of the most fertile and earliest cultivated among the kingdoms of Asia. It had two grand divisions; of which the north-west was called Lesser Media, and the southern, Greater Media. The former corresponds to the modern Adserbijan, and the latter to Irak Adjemi, or Persian Irak.

2. The plain of Shinar or Babylonia, is celebrated in Scripture as the first location of men after the deluge, and as forming the first kingdom. Nimrod was its founder, and from thence extended his conquests over Assyria (Gen. 10, 8—10). The Greek and Roman writers knew nothing of Nimrod; with them Bel or Baal, which signifies lord, was the founder of the Babylonian empire. But as Bel or Belus may have been the general title of the earliest kings, as the Pharaohs of Egypt, so Belus and Nimrod may be the same person. Several centuries later, in the time of Abraham, we hear of Amraphel, king of Shinar or Babylon (Gen. 14, 1); but from that time until the reign of Nabonassar, in 747 B. C., there is no mention of Babylonia in the historical books of the Old Testament.

3. The kingdom of Assyria, according to the authorized translation of the Bible, was founded by Asshur, who was driven from Shinar by Nimrod (Gen. 10, 10, 11); but modern biblical scholars adopt the marginal reading of the passage: "Out of that land, he (Nimrod) went forth into Asshur or Assyria, and builded Nineveh, Rehoboth, and Calah," probably as fortresses to keep Asshur or the Assyrians in subjection. There is no mention of the successors of Nimrod, or of the Assyrians, until the time of David (2 Sam. 10, 15). Chedorlaomer, king of Elam, in the time of Abraham, and Cushan-rishathaim, king of Mesopotamia, about 1400 B. C. (Judg. 3, 8), were probably Assyrians. Belus reigned about a century later, and is said to have driven

the Arabs from Babylonia, after an occupation of 216 years, which he united with Assyria, and reigned fifty-five years. He was succeeded by his son Ninus, in whose reign, and in that of his celebrated queen Semiramis, the Assyrian empire is supposed to have been greatly extended, including all the adjacent countries, and raised to a very high degree of splendour.

4. From the death of Ninus, the son of Ninus and Semiramis, down to the revolt of the Medes, in the reign of Sardanapulus, there is an interval of 800 years, in which there is an absolute void in the history of Assyria. The names of the supposed sovereigns are given, but there are no traces of historical events. We only know that in the reign of Arbaces, the conqueror of Sardanapulus, Nineveh was a large and a populous city. The prophet Jonah, who went thither about 825 B. C., in the reign of Jeroboam II., king of Israel, states that the circuit of Nineveh was three days' journey, and that it contained 120,000 persons who could not distinguish their right hand from their left—that is, young children. By this mode of computation the population had exceeded 600,000, which is a proof that it had been the capital of a powerful kingdom for many years. According to Diodorus Siculus, its walls were 100 feet high, and so broad that three chariots could drive abreast, the towers of which were 150 and 200 feet high.

5. Arbaces, the Median governor, and Balesis, chief-priest at Babylon, who revolted against Sardanapulus, besieged and took Nineveh; when the king fired his palace, and perished in the flames. On the death of Sardanapulus, the Assyrian empire was divided into the three kingdoms of Media, Assyria, and Babylon. Arbaces retained to himself the supreme power, fixing his residence in Media, and appointing sataraps or governors of Babylonia and Assyria, with the title of kings, but subject and tributary to the Median empire. Arbaces established no regular government, which led to great confusion after his death, during which period the Assyrians and Babylonians rendered themselves independant of the Medes.

6. After the death of Sardanapulus, the high-priest Belesis obtained the government of Babylon, and was succeeded by priests, of whom only one, Nabonassar, is deserving of being named. He began to reign, B. C. 747, and is famous for having adopted the Egyptian solar year, which first introduced among the Babylonians an exact method of reckoning time. The era of Nabonassar is important in chronology, as the epoch from which it was reckoned is precisely determined by numerous celestial phenomena recorded by Ptolemy, and corresponds to Wednesday at mid-day, the 26th February, B. C. 747. The six immediate successors of Nabonassar are undeserving of notice. The dissensions which prevailed favoured the designs of Esarhaddon, who united the kingdom of Babylon to Assyria, B. C. 680.

7. *Second Empire of Assyria.*—After the death of Sardanapulus, there is little mention of Assyria, until the reign of Pul,

when it emerged from obscurity, and became the predominant empire. Pul invaded Israel in 771, and compelled the usurper Manasseh to pay 1000 talents of silver (£375,000) to confirm him in the government, and also to become tributary. Pul's power was acknowledged over Syria; and after a reign of twenty-one years, he was succeeded by his son Tiglath-Pileser, 753 B. C. Tiglath invaded Israel as the ally of Ahaz, king of Judah, who despoiled the temple of Jerusalem of all its gold and silver, and acknowledged his kingdom tributary to Assyria, to purchase his support against the kings of Israel and Damascus. He defeated and killed Resin, king of Damascus, entered Israel, captured various cities, and carried numbers of the people into captivity. Tiglath-Pileser died in the midst of his conquests, and was succeeded by Shalmaneser, about 734, who renewed the war against Hoshea, king of Israel, and again obliged him to become tributary. Hoshea, in afterwards attempting to shake off the yoke, brought upon himself the vengeance of Shalmaneser, who once more subjected the country, and laid siege to Samaria, which capitulated, after a defence of three years. Hoshea was imprisoned, the principal inhabitants removed into Assyria, and Israel colonized from other parts of the empire, 721. Afterwards, when the Assyrians were engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Tyrians, Hezekiah king of Judah revolted; but Sennacherib, who soon after succeeded Shalmaneser, about 713, invaded Judah, and compelled Hezekiah to submit, and to pay 300 talents of silver, and 30 talents of gold (£287,700). Notwithstanding, Sennacherib having afterwards determined to occupy Jerusalem, he ordered his army to march against it, when it was smitten by "the angel of the Lord," 185,000 perishing in one night. Sennacherib then fled to Nineveh; and acting in a tyrannical manner, more especially towards the Jewish captives, he was shortly after murdered by two of his sons, whilst at prayers in the temple of Nisroch (2 Kings 19, 8—37).

8. Sennacherib was succeeded by his third son, Esar-Haddon, in 707 B.C., who raised the Assyrian empire to its greatest splendour. Babylonia, Syria, Ethiopia, Egypt, Israel, and Judah, acknowledged his authority; and he led Manasseh a captive to Babylon. Sardanapalus, or Nebuchadnezzar I., succeeded him, in 667, and in 655 vanquished and destroyed the Median army, killing their king Phraortes, and taking Ecbatan. Before confirming his power in Media, he turned his arms against the east, resolving to subdue all the country to the Mediterranean, and then to attack Egypt;—his general Holofernes devastating the kingdoms of Tyre, of Sidon, of Syria, and all the countries north of Judea; everywhere exercising cruelties, and causing his master to be worshipped as a god. Holofernes then advanced into Judea, and laid siege to Bethulia, where he was killed by Judith, the widow of Manasseh, under the circumstances related in the book of Judith. The army was siezed with a panic, and dispersed, leaving the country enriched with

the spoil. The conquered countries then revolted: Nebuchadnezzar I. lost all his conquests, was defeated by Cayaxares I. king of the Medes, and besieged even in Nineveh, B.C. 649. The decay of the empire continued under his successors, Chynaladan and Sarac, whose effeminacy and cowardice led him to allow the Scythians to ravage his provinces without opposition. Nabopolasser, the governor of Babylon, revolted, and allied himself with the Scythians, then with Cayaxares; and, with the assistance of his son Astyages, he took and destroyed Nineveh, and obliged Sarac to kill himself, B. C. 625. That catastrophe put an end to the kingdom of Nineveh, or Assyria; but the Babylonians inherited the latter name, and perpetuated it for another age.

9. *The Median Empire.*—After the death of Arbaces, there followed a period of anarchy, in which each of the six provinces of Media was governed by its own magistrate, until these chose Dejoyces for their king, about 733 B. C. Dejoyces founded Ecbatan, administered justice with promptitude and severity, and inspired the greatest respect for his authority. He was succeeded by his son Phraortes in 690, who subjected Persia, Armenia, and all Asia Minor, as far as the river Halys, including Cappadocia. Phraortes was killed, and his army defeated, before Nineveh, in 655, when Assyria became the predominant empire. Cyaxares I. invaded Assyria, to avenge the defeat and death of his father; when he was recalled to oppose an irruption of the Scythians, who defeated him, and maintained themselves in Media for twenty-eight years. After the expulsion of the Scythians, Cyaxares I. conquered Assyria, and then turned his arms against Halyattes, king of Lydia, for receiving and protecting the Scythians who escaped from Media. During this war, the total eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales in 597, took place in the midst of a battle on the banks of the Halys, and separated the combatants, September 20, 601. Astyages (the Ahasuerus of Scripture) succeeded in 595, and was content to enjoy in peace the extensive conquests and great wealth of his father. He was the father of Cyaxares II., and the grandfather of Cyrus, the conqueror of Babylon, and the founder of the Medo-Persian empire.

10. *The Chaldee-Babylonian Empire, 625.*—Babylon was subject to the Assyrian kings fifty-five years, from 680 to 625, when the Chaldean,* Nabopolasser, who had been governor under Chynaladan and Sarac, made it the capital of the new empire. This prince had to contend with Pharaoh-Necho, king of Egypt, for predominance; by whom he was defeated, and deprived of Carchemish (Circeisum) and many other cities. Encouraged by these disasters, the governors of Syria and Palestine revolted; but his son Nebuchadnezzar, who became associated in the government, defeated Necho at Circeisum, and overran Syria, Judea, Phœnicia, and Egypt; from which he hastened on the death of his father, leaving to his generals the charge of bringing to Chaldaea

* The Chaldeans were a warlike people who inhabited the mountains of Assyria, and brought to Babylon for its defence in the time of Salmanser.

the captives and spoil taken in these countries, in 606 B. C. Nebuchadnezzar II. was one of the greatest conquerors of antiquity. He invaded Judea a second time in 586, and destroyed Jerusalem, carrying away all the vessels of gold and silver, which Solomon had caused to be made for the service of the temple, and thousands of captives, including Daniel, Hananiah, Mishael, and Azariah of the royal family, among the number. He took Tyre after a siege of eleven years; and whilst it was carried on, he subdued the Sidonians, the Ammonites, the Moabites, the Idumeans. He traversed Egypt as a conqueror. He was the scourge of his age, trampling on the nations of the earth at his pleasure. The immense plunder he had collected, he employed in the enlargement and embellishment of Babylon. Towards the latter period of his life, he lost his reason for a period of seven years, when the government was administered by his queen Nitocris. The grandeur of the Chaldeo-Babylonian empire ended with Nebuchadnezzar II. He left two sons, Evil-Merodach and Labnetus. Evil-Merodach succeeded in 561,—an odious despot, who was assassinated in the third year of his reign, by Niriglissor, his brother-in-law and successor, who quarrelled with the Medes, and was defeated and killed in battle by Cyrus, in 557. Labosarchad, who succeeded, was murdered after a few months' reign. Nabonned, or Labnytus, (Belshazzar,) one of the conspirators, succeeded. He indulged in the greatest excesses, and entered into a league with the Lydians and Egyptians against the Medes and the Persians, which led to the invasion of Babylonia, and the siege of the city. Belshazzar had confidence in the strength of its walls; and in honour of the success he expected, he gave the feast described by the prophet Daniel in the night the city was entered by Cyrus, when "the king of the Chaldeans" was slain, and the empire of Babylon transferred to Persia, 540 B. C.]

SECTION IV.*

ON THE GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, CUSTOMS AND MANNERS, AND ARTS AND SCIENCES OF THE EARLY BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS.

1. [THE GOVERNMENT of the Babylonians and Assyrians was despotic. The will of the king was the law, without being controlled by established customs. He was the director of religious worship, and claimed the adoration of his subjects, as if he were an incarnation of the Deity. The people, not only, neither possessed civil or religious rights, but they were not even assured of their natural rights as men, of personal freedom, and security of property. The sovereignty was hereditary; but the people having no attachment to their rulers, frequent changes of dynasties took place.

2. THE RELIGION of the Babylonians consisted of the adoration of nature, *which they personified in its different attributes,*

and in the worship of the sun, moon, and stars. They adored Oannes as an immaterial god, as an intellectual organism; and the Sun, which they named Bell or Baal, as the organizer and vivifier of nature. Next to Baal ranked a female deity, or rather, a deity in which the male and female attributes were united, called Mylitta by the Babylonians, and Astarte by the Syrians. The worship of this deity was licentious and obscene, and a direct encouragement to immorality. The next in order were the planets, as Mars, Mercury, Saturn, and Jupiter, to which the Chaldeans pretended the Supreme God had delegated the government of the world. In order to bring these lesser deities in communication with mankind, the priests invented talismanic characters, which, according to them, participated, by means of certain ceremonies, in the power of the deities they represented. It is uncertain whether the priests, usually called Chaldeans, were a caste or an order; but it is probable that, like the Egyptians and the Jews, the Babylonians had a hereditary priesthood. They were the inventors of the pretended science of astrology, which was believed in even until a late period. They also claimed the power of deifying mortals, and connecting them in some way with the celestial luminaries, just as Eastern monarchs of the present day call themselves "brothers of the sun and moon." Human sacrifices were frequently made to their divinities, so that cruelty and licentiousness were the most marked attributes of the Babylonian and Assyrian idolatry, which, by gratifying the impure passions, readily obtained the popular observance.

3. THE CUSTOMS AND MANNERS were naturally equally depraved with their religion. The condition of women was more degraded in Babylon than in any other Eastern country. No man had a right to dispose of his daughters in marriage; when girls attained mature age, they were exposed to sale in the public markets, and delivered to the highest bidder. The money thus obtained for beauty was applied to portioning ugliness; husbands from the poorer classes being purchased for those to whom nature had been less lavish in exterior gifts. As polygamy was permitted, licentiousness was directly encouraged by law as well as religion.

4. THE SCIENCES, ARTS, INDUSTRY, AND COMMERCE, had made considerable progress, particularly astronomy, which became their religious system. At a very early period, the study of medicine began among them by experiment. They invited communications on the subject, and exposed the sick to the view of passengers, to ascertain from them, if they had ever been attacked in a similar manner, and the means employed to relieve them. These communications were registered in the temple of the God of Medicine, and afterwards systematized by Hippocrates. Music was known to the Assyrians; and they had made great progress in the mechanical arts, which were shown in their temples, bridges, fortifications, and other buildings. From the most remote antiquity, they possessed the art of weaving, of working

in the metals, and of forming figures in perfect imitation of nature. They carried on an extensive trade by the Tigris and Euphrates, which enabled them to exchange the excess of the products of their fertile soil and of their manufactures for the commodities they required from other countries. The Babylonian language belonged to the same class as the Hebrew, Arabic, and Syriac. They possessed an alphabetic character, and wrote on bricks and earthen cylinders; but it is not certain that they possessed books.]

SECTION V.*

HISTORY OF EGYPT FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES, TO THE REIGN OF PSAMMETICHUS, B. C. 650.

1. [The Scriptures inform us that Ethiopia and Egypt were colonized by the descendants of Ham. Ethiopia is frequently called in Scripture *Cush*, from the name of his eldest son; and Egypt, Mizraim, from the name of his second son; also, *Haratz Cham*, the land of *Cham*, or *Ham*. Ethiopia comprehended the modern Nubia and Abyssinia; whilst the territorial extent of Egypt has seldom exceeded the area included within its physical limits. The chain of rocks, stretching east and west, near Syene or Assouan, through which the Nile, the great river of Ethiopia, has forced a passage, has constituted from the earliest times the southern limit or extremity of Egypt. From the cataracts near Syene, to Cairo, the Nile flows, from south to north, in one undivided stream, through a narrow valley, included between two mountain ridges, the one on the east extending to the Red Sea, and the other on the west terminating in the deserts of ancient Libya. Near Cairo, the mountains recede eastward and westward towards the Mediterranean and the isthmus of Suez. At Battu-el-Bahara, below Cairo, the Nile divides into two streams; one of which flowing to Rosetta, and the other to Damietta, inclose between them a triangular piece of land, the base of which is the coast of the Mediterranean; and having thus the form of the Greek letter Δ, *delta*, this part of Egypt received the name of Delta, which it still retains. The length of the valley from Syene to Cairo is about three hundred and ninety geographical miles, of the mean width of about nine miles; and the length of the plain from Cairo to the northernmost point of the Delta, about sixty geographical miles; making the length of Egypt, from the southernmost to the northernmost point, about 450 geographical miles. The whole area, or superficial extent, from the shores of the Delta to the cataracts of Syene, being about 11,000 square miles, or one-third the size of Ireland.]

2. [Egypt was divided into Upper, extending from Syene to the city of Chemmis, (capital, Thebes, or Diospolis); Central, from Chemmis to Cercasorus, (capital, Memphis); and Lower Egypt,

which comprised the Delta, and the land on both sides—it was full of cities, among which the most remarkable was Sais.]

3. [Egyptian history is divided into three periods of unequal duration; the *first* of which extends from the earliest times down to the Sesostridæ, that is to say, to about B. C. 1300; the second comprises the reigns of the Sesostridæ, or the brilliant period of Egypt, down to Psammetichus, 1300—650; the third brings us from Psammetichus down to the Persian conquest, 650—525.]

4. [The early history of Egypt is involved in the greatest obscurity. All accounts, however, and the results of all modern researches, concur in representing the arts and civilization as having existed in Ethiopia at an earlier period than in Egypt, and that the current of population descended along the course of the Nile, gradually overspreading the valley which was fertilized by its waters. The monuments which exist at Meroë and elsewhere, are said to bear evident marks of being the models for the wondrous edifices of Egypt, and that the vases depicted on the monuments display a taste and elegance of form that have never been surpassed.]

5. [The first settlers in Egypt were nomadic or migratory, and had no more fixed dwellings than the Bedouins of the present day; they were destitute of science, of arts, and of definite forms of civilization. Ages of favourable circumstances no doubt elapsed before they established themselves in a fixed and permanent manner, and applied themselves to agriculture. The fertility of the valley of the Nile encouraged the early location of families, and the increase of population, and the forming of villages, which, by the successive development of civilization, became great and powerful cities. Upper Egypt was the first seat of civilization; which originating in the south, in Ethiopia, spread, by the settlement of colonies, towards the north. Each of these colonies were in the earliest times a separate state, district, or nome; the governing body being the priests, and the central point of each, the temple where religious worship was performed. This form of government, which is called a theocracy, resembled that by which the Arabians were governed by the Caliphs, though in many respects less perfect. It divided the population into three distinct classes or castes; first the priests, then the military, and, thirdly, the labouring population. The people alone laboured, and the fruit of their toil was appropriated by the priests, who employed the military to keep the rest of the population in subjection. But a period arrived when the military became weary of yielding a blind obedience to the priests. A revolution broke out, when Menes, the military leader, established a regal government, and transmitted the power to his descendants.]

6. [MENES assumed the supreme power about B. C. 2188,* and

* Champollion Figac fixes this event in 2782 B. C., from a calculation based on recent discoveries.

made Thebes the capital of his kingdom. He regulated the religious worship, and applied himself to the instruction of the people, which had been neglected by the priests. He altered the course of the Nile, causing it to flow in the middle of the valley, and raised embankments to protect the ground, which he intended for the site of Memphis, the future capital of Central Egypt. According to Manetho,* there were sixteen dynasties from Menes, ending with Timaus, to the invasion and conquest of Lower and Central Egypt by the Arabs, whose chieftains were called by the Egyptians, Hyksos, or Shepherd-kings, B.C. 2084. These conquerors inflicted the greatest cruelty; they burned the cities, threw down the temples of the gods, and tyrannized over the inhabitants for about two hundred and sixty-years, when they were expelled by Thothmosis, king of Upper Egypt, B.C. 1825. The Shepherd-kings are classed by Manetho as those of the seventeenth dynasty.]

7. [Amenoph I. the son of Thothmosis, who had assisted in the expulsion of the Hyksos, united all Egypt under his dominion. He was the founder of the eighteenth dynasty. His entire reign, and that of his three successors, were devoted to re-establishing a regular government, and raising the people from the condition to which they had been reduced by their conquerors. The canals, which had been neglected or destroyed, were repaired or re-formed, whilst agriculture and the arts were protected and encouraged. Towns were rebuilt, temples erected, and many of the monuments, which are still admired on the banks of the Nile, belong to this period. Of this number are the monuments of Semneh and Amada in Nubia, and several of those of Karnak and Medinet-Habon; also the two obelisks of Alexandria, and the great lake of Fayoum, or Mæris, which served to maintain in the lower country a perpetual equilibrium between the inundations of the Nile. Amenoph III., who conquered Abyssinia, caused to be built the palace of Sohleb in Upper Nubia, the magnificent palace of Luxor, and extensive additions to the grand palace of Karnak at Thebes. The two colossal statues at Kourna are supposed to represent this prince. It was in the reign of one of the princes of the eighteenth dynasty, that Joseph the son of Jacob became prime-minister of Egypt, and took advantage of the seven years' famine he had foretold, to acquire for the government the proprietorship of all the land of Egypt, except the lands of the priests, which he redistributed among the people, fixing the annual rent payable to the state at one-fifth of the produce which was to form the future revenue for defraying the expenses of government. The Scriptures inform us that, during the administration of Joseph, the Pharaoh or sovereign of Egypt was an absolute monarch, the

* Manetho, high-priest of Heliopolis, translated the sacred records of his country into Greek in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, A.C. 284-246, part of which is preserved by Josephus and Julius Africanus.

chus of Sais, to take flight; but returning, supported by Greek and Carian mercenaries, he expelled the others, fifteen years after the division was made, about B.C. 650. From this time Egyptian history begins to be divested of fable, and may be accounted as certain as that of any other ancient nation.]

SECTION VI.

THE ANTIQUITY, GOVERNMENT, ARTS AND SCIENCES, RELIGION, AND MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE EGYPTIANS.

1. A GREAT portion of the knowledge and attainments of the ancient nations, and, by consequence, of those of the moderns, is to be traced to Egypt. The Egyptians instructed the Greeks, who performed the same office to the Romans; and the two latter have transmitted much of that knowledge to the world, of which we are in possession at this day.*

2. THE ANTIQUITY of this empire, though we give no credit to the chronicles of Manetho, or those of the Chaldeans, Chinese, or Indians, must be allowed to be very great.—The Mosiac writings represent Egypt in the time of Joseph, about 1715 B.C. as a flourishing and well-regulated kingdom, divided into districts, containing numerous cities, with ministers of state; prisons for the confinement of criminals, which argues an established system of penal laws; a priesthood with permanent revenues; a knowledge of metallurgy and the manufacture of fine linen; the use of chariots for state purposes† and for war; a trade in slaves, and other indications of a state of civilization that had been preceded by ages of progression. The nature of the country itself affords a presumption of the great antiquity of the empire, and its early civilization.—From the fertilizing effects of the waters of the Nile, it is probable that agriculture would be more early practised there than in regions less favoured by nature.—The periodical inundations of the Nile are owing to the vapours of the Mediterranean, which are driven to the southward as far as the mountains of Ethiopia, where, being condensed, they fall down in immense deluges of rain.‡

* For the supposed origin of Egyptian science, see Part II. Sect. 50.

† Chariots and carriages were not used in England until the reign of Elizabeth.

‡ The Nile begins to rise in Egypt about the middle of June, and continues to increase through the month of July. In August it overflows its banks, and reaches its highest point early in September; and the country is then mostly covered with its waters. In the beginning of October the inundation still continues; and it is only towards the end of this month that the stream returns within its banks. From the middle of August till towards the end of October, the country resembles a great lake or sea, in which the cities and towns appear as islands. The fertility imparted lies not only in the inundation watering the land (for rain seldom falls in Lower Egypt, and is almost unknown in the Upper Provinces), but also in the thick silty mud deposited by its waters, like a coat of rich manure; and the seed, being immediately sown upon it, without digging or ploughing, springs up rapidly, grows with luxuriance, and ripens into abundance. It must not, however, be supposed

3. THE GOVERNMENT of Egypt, in the earliest times, was theocratic, or in the priests—each nome or district being ruled by its own priests. But from the time of Menes, it was an hereditary monarchy. The powers of the monarch were limited by constitutional laws; yet in many respects his authority was extremely despotical. The functions of the sovereign were partly civil and partly religious. The king had the chief regulation of all that regarded the worship of the gods; and the priests, considered as his deputies, filled all the offices of state. They were both the legislators and the civil judges; they imposed and levied the taxes, and regulated weights and measures. The great national tribunal was composed of thirty judges, chosen from the priests in the three principal provinces or departments of the empire—Thebes, Heliopolis, and Memphis.

These judges had revenues assigned them, that, being freed from domestic cares, they might devote their whole time to the execution of the laws. Thus, maintained by the liberality of the sovereign, who exacted an oath from them not to yield obedience even to himself if he passed an unjust law, they administered gratuitously to the people that justice to which they have a natural right; and as parties were their own advocates, the expense was no burden upon the people. To guard against surprise, the judges also required that every case should be laid before them in writing, lest they might be misled by that extraordinary gift of oratory which often dazzles the mind, and moves the passions. The penal laws of Egypt were uncommonly severe. Wilful murder and perjury were punished with death; and the false accuser was condemned to suffer the same punishment which the person accused would have suffered, had the charge been proved. Female chastity was most rigidly protected; and he who refused to render assistance to another when attacked, was equally liable to punishment with the individual who had done the injury. The Egyptians did not, like most other nations, consign the bodies of the dead to destruction; they preserved them by embalming, celebrating their obsequies with extraordinary solemnity. To be deprived of funeral rites they considered one of the greatest calamities; but these rites were not permitted but after a scrutiny into the life of the deceased, and by a judicial decree approving of his character. The characters even of the sovereigns were subjected to this inquiry; and Diodorus assures us that some of the kings had been deprived of funeral rites, and their memories thus consigned to infamy.

There was an extraordinary regulation in Egypt to discourage

that the Nile spreads itself over every spot of land, and waters it sufficiently without artificial aid. From time immemorial machines have been used to raise the water to grounds above the level of the inundation. Lakes were also formed as reservoirs to supply the deficiency, and canals to convey the water to the districts that required it. If the inundation reached the height of twenty-two feet, a rich harvest was expected; because then all the fields had received the requisite irrigation; and if it fell short of that height, then the deficiency of crops would be in proportion. Famines frequently occurred in Egypt from that cause.

the borrowing of money. The borrower was required to give in pledge the embalmed body of his father; and he was not only deprived of funeral rites if he failed to redeem it, but whilst he lived he was not permitted to bury any person descended from him.

Population was encouraged by many salutary laws. Polygamy was tolerated, but few Egyptians had more than one wife. Every man was bound to maintain and educate not only the children born to him in the state of marriage, but also those that he had by his slaves or concubines: whatever was the condition of the woman, whether she was free or a slave, her children were deemed free and legitimate. Homicide was punished with death, even when committed on a slave; and the exposing of infants was restrained by the severest penalties.

4. The Egyptians preceded most of the ancient nations in the knowledge of the useful ARTS, and in the cultivation of the SCIENCES. They understood very early the use of metals, both in the fabrication of serviceable utensils, in ornamental decorations, and in the coining of money, as a medium of commerce. Architecture was early brought to great perfection. Their buildings, the pyramids, obelisks, &c., have, from the extreme mildness of the climate, suffered little injury from time. Some of the obelisks, which are supposed to be more ancient than the pyramids, and consequently above 3000 years old, are entire at this day: one in particular may be seen at Rome, which was transported thither by Augustus, and which Pliny says was supposed to be older than the time of Sesostrius. These immense masses, consisting of one entire block of granite, were hewn in the quarries of Upper Egypt, where some are now to be seen half-finished. During the inundation of the Nile, and by means of canals, they were conveyed on rafts to the places where they were to be erected. Pliny minutely describes the contrivance by means of which they were transported.—The whole country abounds with the remains of ancient magnificence. Thebes, in Upper Egypt, was one of the most splendid cities in the universe.

The greater pyramids are supposed to have been erected about 900 years B.C. The great pyramid of Cheops, and that of Cephrenes, the second in size, have been entered, and found to contain numerous chambers, with a sarcophagus in one of the chambers of each, probably the sepulchre of the sovereign by whose command it was built.* The Egyptians believed that

* The pyramid of Cheops is an equilateral square, of which each side measures at the base 693 English feet. The stones of which it is composed are, many of them, 30 feet in length, 4 in height, and 3 in breadth. The superficial contents of the area are 480,340 feet, or something more than 11 English acres. The height of the pyramid is 481 feet, which is about the height of the cupola of St Paul's church in London. It rises from the base to the apex in steps of near 4 feet in height, and the summit is a square platform of 13 feet, composed of 10 or 12 stones. This form of construction in the manner of steps was probably given to the building, that it might receive a coating of marble, by laying upon each step a block of a prismatical form, which would thus bring the exterior of the building to a smooth surface, which is the appearance of most of the smaller pyramids at this day. The entrance is on the north side. The ascent is made by steps; and narrow passages lead to the

death did not separate the soul from the body; and hence their extreme care to preserve the body entire, by embalming, concealing it in caves and catacombs, and guarding it by such stupendous structures.

The remains of art in Egypt, though venerable for their great antiquity, are extremely deficient in beauty and elegance. The Egyptians were ignorant of the construction of an arch. The remains of painting and sculpture evince but a slender proficiency in those arts, and afford but a small degree of pleasure to the critical eye.

5 [The Egyptians possessed considerable knowledge of geometry, mechanics, and astronomy. The necessity for distinguishing their fields after the inundations of the Nile, and the division of the land by Sesostris, conducted them at an early period to the discovery of geometry. The conveyance of immense masses of granite for hundreds of miles, and the raising them to a great height in their buildings, attests their knowledge of mechanics. They were acquainted with arithmetic; they studied astronomy with ardour; they divided the zodiac into twelve signs; they had discovered the solar year about 1325 B. C.; they were able to calculate both solar and lunar eclipses. Thales, who received his knowledge of astronomy from the Egyptians, predicted the famous eclipse of the sun which separated the armies of the Medes and Lydians during an engagement, B. C. 603 (according to Dr. Hales). The position of the pyramids, most exactly corresponding to the four cardinal points, is, not without reason, urged as a proof of their knowledge in astronomy, as it requires even at present considerable knowledge in that science to trace a meridian line with perfect accuracy. They seem also to have had an idea of the motion of the earth.]

6. [THE RELIGION of Egypt consisted in the worship of the powers of nature, and of the heavenly bodies. One great intelligence was supposed to preside over all nature. They believed in the immortality of the soul; and esteemed the present state of existence to be of no value, in comparison with that which was to come, and which was to be the reward of a life spent in this world in the practice of virtue. The Egyptian religion had this peculiarity, that *living animals* were made to represent the real objects of worship. Their principal divinities were Osiris, Isis, Typhon, and Nephthys. In Osiris they recognised the vegetable kingdom, the Nile, the sun, fire, the male principle—active and

chambers, the walls of which are of red granite, highly polished, each stone reaching from the floor to the ceiling; and the ceilings are formed of large slabs of polished granite, extending from wall to wall. One chamber is 17 feet long, 14 feet wide, and 12 feet high; and the largest, 37 feet long, 17 feet wide, and 20 feet high; at the end of which stands a sarcophagus, also of red granite. Its length is seven feet six inches; depth, three and a half; breadth, three feet three inches; in which it is supposed the body of him for whom the structure had been raised was deposited. The sarcophagus is exactly the size of the orifice which forms the entrance of the pyramid, and could not have been conveyed to its place by any of the now known passages; consequently, it must have been deposited during the building, or before the passage was finished in its present state.

vivifying, which they represented by the bull or ox Mnevis, consecrated to the sun at Heliopolis; and by another, called Apis, dedicated to the moon at Memphis; and also by other emblems. In Isis they recognized the moon, the land of Egypt, humidity, the female principle, of which the symbol was a heifer. Typhon was the evil principal, king of death and destruction; and Nephthys his sister, the earth unfruitful, drought, and sterility. To the worship of these divinities was joined that of the animals useful to the shepherd, the husbandman, or society generally, as the Ox, the Ram, the Ibis—a species of stork, which destroyed the serpents that infested the country; the Ichneumon, a species of weasel, and the Cat, destroyers of serpents, rats, and crocodiles' eggs. The Egyptian added to these the worship of noxious animals, as the Rat, Crocodile, and Hippopotamus, to which he sacrificed, in his terror to appease them; and lastly, the worship of useful herbs, of which the principal was the Lotus, which furnished him with part of his food.

7. [The priests of Egypt, like the Bramins of India, were a distinct order or caste. They are supposed to have come from Ethiopia, and to have been the civilizers of the first inhabitants. They were the educated part of the land, and the inventors of emblematical or hieroglyphic writing, of which, according to Clement of Alexandria, there were three different kinds. 1, The *Epistolographic*, called also *Demotic* and *Enchorial*, which was the kind commonly in use; 2, the *Hieratic*, or sacerdotal language; and 3, the *Hieroglyphic*, or monumental writing. But of this last there were different species; as, 1, *Phonetic*, which expressed objects by means of characters employed as signs of sounds; 2, the *Munetic*, which was picture-writing, strictly so called; 3, the *Symbolic*, which expressed objects indirectly by synecdoche, by metonymy, or by metaphors more or less obvious; and, 4, the *Enigmatic*, which as the name implies, expressed ideas by means of *certain enigmas*.* The morality taught by the priests was pure and refined; but it had little influence on the manners of the people. So, likewise, the theology and secret doctrines were rational and sublime; but the worship of the people was debased by the most absurd superstition. Although animal worship was common throughout Egypt, yet it differed in different parts of the country. There were but a few species which were everywhere worshipped; the others were sacred in one district, but not in another. In one province they might be killed and eaten; in another, the punishment of death was the price of doing them an injury. "The multitude," says Diodorus, "have been inflamed into the highest pitch of fury, on account of the sacriligious murder of a *divine cat*."

* The accidental disinterment of a stone at Rosetta, inscribed with hieroglyphic and enchorial texts, together with a Greek version of both; and the subsequent discovery of a monument at Philæ, adapted for illustrating that of Rosetta, enabled Dr Young and others to discover the key to that mode of writing, which has opened up so much of the treasure of Egyptian history, mythology, science, art, and learning; and, when further improved, will open still more.

8. [THE MANNERS of the Egyptians were very early formed. They had a singular attachment to ancient usages; a dislike to innovation; a jealousy and abhorrence of strangers—particularly of the nomade tribes that lived in their neighbourhood, who had been their conquerors and oppressors at various times. But these opinions underwent a remarkable change in the reign of Psammetichus, B. C. 650, who obtained the sovereignty by the assistance of Greek mercenaries; and afterwards, by putting more confidence in these than in his native subjects of the military caste, the latter were so much offended, that upwards of 100,000 fighting men emigrated in a body, beyond the cataracts, and settled in Ethiopia, where they established an independent state. To repair this loss, Psammetichus earnestly applied himself to the advancement of commerce, and opened his ports to all strangers, contrary to the maxims of his predecessors. He gave particular encouragement to the Greeks to settle in his dominions. He assigned them lands; he employed the learned among them to instruct the Egyptian youth in the Greek language, and endeavoured by every means in his power to remove the prejudice that had hitherto kept his subjects sequestered from all other nations; in which policy he was followed by several of his successors. The superstition of the Egyptians was proverbial in other nations; and their general character did not contribute to gain their esteem. Their private manners were loose; and in the festivals in honour of their gods, they committed such indecencies as degraded them in the opinion of other nations.]

SECTION VII.

OF THE PHœNICIANS.

1. THE Phœnicians were among the most early civilized nations of the East. We are indebted to them for the invention of writing, and for the first attempts at commercial navigation. The fragments of Sanchoniatho, which have been preserved by Eusebius, are the most ancient monuments of writing after the books of Moses. Sanchoniatho was contemporary with Joshua, about 1440 B. C., and 500 years before the cities of Attica were united by Theseus.

2. The Phœnicians (the Canaanites of Scripture) were a commercial people in the days of Abraham. Their situation, occupying a narrow country on the eastern coast of the Mediterranean, and confined on all quarters towards the land by the surrounding tribes, naturally induced them to turn their attention to navigation. Among them, as among other nations, commerce took its rise in piracy; even as late as the time of Homer,

they appear to have been freebooters.—In the time of the Hebrew judges, they had begun to colonize. Their first settlements were Cyprus and Rhodes; thence they passed into Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain; and formed establishments likewise on the western coast of Africa, of which the most illustrious was Carthage, afterwards the most formidable rival of the Roman power.—The Sidonians carried on an extensive commerce in the time of the Trojan war.

3. Tyre was colonized from Sidon, and these two cities were amongst the most illustrious of antiquity. The former does not appear to have existed in the time of Homer, for he makes frequent mention of Sidon, but says nothing of Tyre. The Tyrians were extremely industrious, and discovered many of the useful arts. To them we owe the invention of the making of glass, and the Tyrian purple (made of the juice of a marine shell-fish) is celebrated by all ancient authors. Tyre appears to have rapidly risen to great splendour, and to have surpassed its parent state in opulence and extensive commerce. But its greatness was of no long duration. It was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar II., king of Babylon, about 572 B. C., after a siege of thirteen years. A new city was afterwards built on an island at no great distance from the ancient site, which soon rivalled the former in magnitude and splendour; the capture of which, in 332 B. C., by Alexander the Great, after a siege of seven months, was considered the greatest exploit of that mighty conqueror.

SECTION VIII.*

THE HISTORY OF THE JEWS,

From Abraham to the Establishment of the Monarchy.
1996—1096 B. C.

1. THE Jewish history is divided into three periods. 1. As a nomade family, from Abraham till their settlement in Palestine, B. C. 1996—1491.† 2. As a theocracy, under the judges and high-priests, from 1451—1096.† 3. As a monarchical govern-

* This Section of Jewish history is principally taken from Jahn's Hebrew Commonwealth.

† Usher's Chronology of these periods—from the birth of Abraham to the end of the Hebrew commonwealth—neither accords with the Mosaic account, the relation of the apostle Paul, nor the researches of modern chronologists. The learned authors of *L'Art de Vérifier les Dates*, fix the birth of Abraham in 2366 a. c., the establishment of Jacob in Egypt in 2076, the Exodus or departure from Egypt in 1645, the death of Moses in 1605, and the election of Saul as the first king in 1080; which allows 430 years (Exod. 12: 40), in place of 215 years, for the sojourn of the Hebrews in Egypt; and 525 years, in place of 357 years, from the entrance of Joshua into Canaan to the election of Saul. The apostle Paul (Acts 13: 20) assigns about 450 years from the death of Joshua until Samuel; and as Joshua lived about thirty-five years after he crossed the Jordan, and Saul ruled as judge about forty years, these periods added together make 525 years. It is impossible to arrive at the certain chronology of these times; but as biblical scholars are nearly agreed as to the year in which Saul was elected the first king of the Hebrews, the probability is, that the authors of *L'Art de Vérifier les Dates* have made a nearer approximation to the truth than Usher and others.

ment, from 1096—975; first in one kingdom,—975; and afterwards as two separate kingdoms, Israel and Judah, until the downfall of the latter, 588.

2. The Jews derive their origin from Abraham, the son of Terah. He was descended from Noah by Shem, from whom he was nine degrees removed. He was born in Chaldea or Babylonia, and flourished, according to Usher, about B. C. 1996—1821. At that period the whole world was sunk in idolatry; and Abraham was chosen by the Almighty, that by him and his posterity the knowledge of the essential principles of true religion might be preserved on the earth, and the way prepared for a more perfect relation of himself to mankind. Abraham was a *nomade*, or wandering shepherd, whose property consisted in flocks and herds. He obeyed the command of God, and departed from Haran when seventy-five years old, taking up his abode among the Canaanites, in Palestine, the country promised to his posterity; and after various journeyings for one hundred years, there died, aged 175 years, about B. C. 1821, leaving his son Isaac, who was born in B. C. 1896, the inheritance of his flocks and herds, and his authority. Jacob was born about B. C. 1837, who, with his father Isaac, lived as nomade chiefs; and, having the faith of Abraham, were blessed by the Almighty. He renewed to them the promises made to Abraham, and declared to Jacob his purpose relative to his descendants possessing the land of Canaan, and the descent of the Messiah through him (Gen. 28: 10—15). He also, for his faith, gave to Jacob the name of Israel (who prevails with God). Isaac died at Mamre, in Hebron, aged 180, about B. C. 1716; whilst Jacob migrated to Egypt, in 1704, with his family and all his dependants, and there died about 1689; from whence he was brought, according to his express desire, and buried in the cave of Machpelah, before Mamre, with Abraham and Isaac (Gen. 49, 50).

3. The well-known advancement of Joseph, the son of Jacob, at the court of Pharaoh, (see Gen. 27, to end) enabled him to succour his father in the great famine, and to obtain for him a settlement in "the best of the land" of Egypt, in the province of Goshen, which bordered on Palestine, and particularly adapted for pasturage. During the sojourn of the Hebrews in Egypt, they retained to a considerable extent the character of a pastoral tribe. They built several cities by the command of Pharaoh to dwell in; yet the greater number continued their nomade life. But what they had seen in Egypt could not fail to exert an important influence upon their feelings and habits. They were made acquainted with the advantages of a well regulated government, the utility of agriculture, and the value of the arts, to the cultivation of which some of them had applied themselves (Exod. 1: 14; 1 Chr. 4: 21—23). The attachment of the Hebrews to the country of their adoption prevented their dispersion; and as the Egyptians despised all nomade tribes, they could

not easily become intermingled with them. As the Hebrews continued a distinct people, and having become very numerous, the suspicions of a jealous government were awakened, when a king of a new dynasty ascended the throne. This king, ignorant of the public services of Joseph, and fearing lest they might rebel against him, began to oppress them by unreasonable demands of personal service; and finding that his severity did not lessen their numbers, he issued the murderous order respecting their infant sons (Exod. 1: 8—22). But, in consequence of this very decree, Moses became the adopted son of his daughter, who caused him to be instructed in all the learning of the Egyptians (Exod. 2: 1—10). This cruel oppression was continued for more than eighty years, till at last the Pharaoh was compelled to permit the departure of the Hebrews, by supernatural and public calamities which Moses always predicted, and removed as often as the Pharaoh relented and promised submission. Moses, by divine appointment, conducted the Hebrews from Egypt, about 1491 B. C.* The miraculous events that preceded their departure, and that happened during the forty years of their wanderings in *the wilderness*,† are fully narrated in Scripture. Moses was not permitted to enter the promised land, nor any over twenty years old at the departure from Egypt, who had murmured against God; but it was shown to him from Nebo, the summit of Mount Pisgah; after which this great man and distinguished servant of God commissioned Joshua, not as his successor, but as the military leader, divinely appointed to be the conqueror and apportioner of the land of Canaan, and there died, aged 120, about 1451 B. C. By the institutions which he introduced for the preservation of the knowledge of God, he conferred an invaluable service, not only on the Hebrews, but on the whole human race.

5. The institutions of Moses changed the whole character of the Hebrews, transforming them from a nation of shepherds to a people desiring a fixed residence, and addicted to agriculture. The government established by him was, strictly speaking, a theocracy, the supreme legislative power exclusively resting in God or his oracle. The council of elders was not of divine appointment, but instituted by Moses in the wilderness, to assist in determining minor disputes among the people, all difficult cases being referred to himself.‡ (Exod. 18: 1; Numb. 11:

* See note before. The 215 years assigned by Usher for the sojourn of the Hebrews in Egypt appears too short a period to admit of the Hebrews increasing from seventy persons (Gen. xlvii. 27.) to 603,550 males over twenty years of age, besides 22,000 males of a month old and upwards among the Levites (Numb. i. 46; iii. 30), which would give a total population of about 2,400,000. Even assuming the Hebrews were 430 years in Egypt, as stated in Exod. xii. 40, the increase has appeared to many incredible; but a German calculator has demonstrated that in that period a much greater increase could have taken place at a moderate progression. See *Jahn's Hebrew Commonwealth*, p. 31. Ward's Edition.

† The desert of Zin, in Arabia Petrea.

‡ As this council of state was appointed to assist Moses, it ceased after his death. There is no mention of it in the history of the succeeding periods. The Sanhedrim was not instituted until probably 54 B. C.

16.) Though the Mosaic state was so organized that there could be regularly no chief magistrate except the invisible king Jehovah, and no minister of state except the high priest, yet it is evident, from Deut. 17: 9—20, that when the necessities of the nation required it, a supreme ruler of the whole community might be legally chosen.

6. After the death of Moses, Joshua conducted the Hebrews into Canaan, 1451 B. C., and everywhere defeated the armies that opposed his progress; and after taking the principal cities, he divided the land by lot among the several tribes, leaving to each tribe to expel its own enemies. While Joshua lived, the people were obedient and prosperous; but after his death, in 1426 B. C., when the people were left without a supreme civil ruler, the idolatry that had been secretly practised by individuals came to be openly professed by many, especially those that had intermarried with the Canaanites, these imagining they would be more prosperous if they rendered religious homage to the ancient gods of the country. This propensity to idolatry, which was predominant in the rest of the world, thus spread like a plague among the Hebrews.

7. As there was no regular succession of judges, and as the high-priests had little political influence, the federal union of the tribes, each having their own patriarch or elder, as in the nomade state, was only preserved by the common bond in the worship of Jehovah, and the dread of a foreign yoke. The disunion and jealousy of the tribes, who never assisted each other with requisite zeal and alacrity, favoured the irruptions of the neighbouring nations. From the time of Joshua to that of Samuel, the whole nation, or some of the tribes, at different times, were reduced to a state of servitude for about one-fourth of that period. The fortunes of the Hebrew nation constantly varied as the fundamental law of the state was observed or transgressed, exactly as Moses had predicted, and the sanctions of the law had determined. The nations that acquired power during this period, and were employed to punish the idolatrous and rebellious Hebrews, were the Mesopotamians, the Moabites, the Northern Canaanites, the Midianites, the Ammonites, and the Philistines. When the measure of their punishment was completed, God, in the course of his providence, raised up extraordinary judges to rescue them from their enemies, and restore government among them. The most remarkable of these judges, after Joshua, were Othniel, Ehud, Shamgar, Deborah, Gideon, Jephthah, Samson, and lastly Samuel, who in his old age was strenuously solicited by the elders to choose a king to rule over them, in consequence of their objection to his sons Joel and Abiah, who had been appointed to assist in his office. Samuel applied to God in the exigency, who directed him to comply with their desires, after a solemn protest against their proceedings, and briefly enumerating the burdens they would have to bear under a king. Nevertheless, the people refused

to follow the recommendation of Samuel, and said, "Nay; but we will have a king over us; that we also may be like all the nations; and that our king may judge us, and go out before us, and fight our battles." (1 Sam. 8 : 19, 20.)

SECTION IX.*

CIVIL CONSTITUTION OF THE JEWS

Previous to the Monarchy.

1. *Form of Government before the Mosaic Law.*—[Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, governed their respective families with unlimited paternal authority. The number of servants in these families was considerable; for it appears from the mention of Abraham's three hundred and eighteen homeborn armed servants, that the whole number of males in this class only, exclusive of those who had been purchased, was twelve hundred and seventy-two. His subjects, then, must have amounted to several thousands; and hence an estimate may be made of the number of his herds, to attend which so many servants were necessary. It will not, therefore, appear surprising, that the land of Canaan was scarcely sufficient for the residence of Abraham and Lot. (Gen. 14: 14;—13: 6, compare 32: 1—18.)

2. These patriarchs were powerful princes, as the emirs of the Nomades are at the present day. They were completely independent, and formed alliances with other princes, and even with kings, and repelled force by force. For their vassals, they were the priests, who appointed the festivals and presented offerings; the guardians, who protected them from injustice; the chiefs, who led them in war; the judges, who banished the turbulent, and inflicted capital punishment. (Gen. 38: 20;—14: 14, 24;—15: 9, 10;—21: 14;—22: 13;—34: 14;—38: 24. Job 1: 5.)

3. The twelve sons of Jacob, after the death of their father, ruled their own families with the same authority. But when their descendants had increased so as to form tribes, each tribe acknowledged a prince as its ruler. This office was at first hereditary, and belonged to the oldest son of the founder of the tribe; but afterwards it probably became elective. The division of nations into tribes very generally prevailed in ancient times; and the custom is still retained by the Bedouin Arabs, and even by the Persians.

4. As the numbers of each tribe increased, the less powerful families united themselves with the stronger, and acknowledged them as their superiors. Hence there arose a subdivision of the tribes into collections of families. Such "a collection was called a house of fathers, a clan, or a thousand;" not because each of these subdivisions consisted of a thousand persons, for it is evident

that the number varied. (Judges 6: 15. 1 Sam. 10: 19;—23: 23. Numb. 26: 5—50.)

5. Before the departure from Egypt, the Hebrews were under the immediate government of the rulers of these clans, who were denominated "heads of houses of fathers, heads of thousands," &c., and were in rank subordinate to the princes. These two classes of rulers were comprehended under the general names of "seniors, or heads of tribes." (Numb. 1: 16;—10: 4.) They were fathers rather than magistrates, governing according to the regulations established by custom. They provided for the general good, while the concerns of each individual family still continued under the control of its own father. In general, those cases only which concerned the fathers of families themselves, came under the cognizance of the seniors.

6. Such is the patriarchal form of government which the Nomades, particularly the Bedouin Arabs, have in a great measure preserved to the present day. They call their princes, emirs; and their heads of clans, sheichs, elders; under the last of which appellations the Hebrews included both these orders of rulers. The Arabian emirs have their secretaries, who appear to be officers similar to those denominated שְׂרָיִים among the Hebrews. The Hebrew shoterim, (in the English version translated officers,) whose peculiar business it was to register the genealogies, possessed considerable authority, as will be seen in the sequel, and sustained an important part in the government. (Exod. 5: 6—19.)

7. *Fundamental Law of the Mosaic Institutions.*—A correct knowledge of God, and of the relation of man to his Almighty Judge, is certainly the principal, if not the sole ground, of all morality, and of all moral happiness, among human beings. It constitutes, in fact, man's chief good. (John 17: 3.) Now, even though we should allow that a superior mind, at the present day, can derive this correct knowledge from a view of the universe, or the situation and wants of man; yet it was certainly unattainable by men of high antiquity. This conclusion is confirmed by the history of all nations, even of those which were much more recent in their origin, and more highly cultivated. We find, nevertheless, this correct knowledge of God among the pious patriarchs of the highest antiquity; and unless we will absurdly suppose that those simple and unlearned fathers were speculative philosophers and profound thinkers, we must acknowledge the truth of the declarations, that God from time to time revealed himself in a supernatural manner to the men of the old world, and that the knowledge thus communicated was afterwards transmitted from father to son. (Gen. 1: 28—30;—2: 15 ff;—3: 14 ff;—4: 9;—6: 3, 12 ff;—9: 1—18;—12: 1 ff;—15: 1 ff;—18: 17 ff; and many other places.

8. But it was difficult to preserve the knowledge of God among sensual men, even after it had been revealed. Before

the flood, profligacy and practical atheism prevailed (Gen. 4: 16;—6: 2 ff); and four centuries after, superstition and idolatry had crept in on all sides. Their influence was constantly extending, and at last became universal; and no people, who were left to themselves, ever regained a knowledge of the true God.

9. That a knowledge of the Deity might not be removed entirely from the earth, God revealed himself to an illustrious Chaldean, and appointed him, with his descendants by Isaac and Jacob, to the important trust of preserving this invaluable treasure in the world, and finally of imparting it to other nations. (Gen. 18: 16—20, comp. Gen. 17: 9—14;—12: 3;—22: 18;—28: 14.)

10. In time, idolatry became so general through the earth, that even the descendants of Jacob, though they never entirely forgot the God who created heaven and earth, who caused the deluge, and gave their ancestors such magnificent promises respecting their descendants, became, for the most part, infected with the idolatry of Egypt; so that all the miracles which they witnessed there, at the Red Sea, and Mount Horeb, were scarcely sufficient to bring them back to a constant worship of the true God. (Exod. 32: 1—35. Amos 5: 26.)

11. That the Hebrews might preserve the knowledge of God through succeeding ages, civil institutions were necessary, by which the knowledge and worship of the true God should be connected with the political structure of this nation so intimately, that they could be annihilated only by the annihilation of the political existence of the people. Such institutions were provided by a civil constitution, exactly suited to the condition of the world at that time, when the civil regulations of all people were identified with their religion. Though the independant patriarchs, nomadic as well as agricultural, were forced by circumstances to enter into societies, they were never very willing to receive the new constitutions and new laws which were prescribed to them by others. For this reason, the ancient legislators always pretended that they had been authorized to impose laws by some divinity. Thus, Menes in Egypt gave out that he had received his instructions from Mercury; Cadmus at Thebes, from an oracle; Minos in Crete, from Jupiter; Lycurgus at Sparta, from Apollo; Zathraustes among the Arimaspi, from their national god; Zamolxis, from the tutelar goddess of his nation; and Numa at Rome, from the nymph Egeria. These lawgivers, however, did not invent the religious systems of their people; but they improved the false religions already in existence, to establish and perpetuate their civil institutions. Moses did not, as Strabo and Diodorus Siculus assert, proceed in the same manner; but he proved his mission to be really divine, by such supernatural works and wisdom as no other lawgiver could ever lay claim to. The whole nation heard God himself speak from Sinai. Neither did Moses employ religion to support his political

institutions; but he reversed the usual order, and made the worship of the one only true God the fundamental law of his institutions, which was to remain for ever unalterable, through all the changes which might occur in the lapse of time.

12. The condescending manner in which Jehovah really represented himself to the Hebrews, was yet insufficient to perpetuate the knowledge and worship of the true God among them. He, therefore, through the intervention of Moses, suffered himself to be elected their king, by a voluntary choice. (Exod. 19: 4—8, comp. Judg. 8: 23. 1 Sam. 8: 7;—10: 18;—12: 1. 1 Chron. 29: 23.) The land of Canaan was considered as the royal possession, of which the Hebrews were to be the hereditary occupants, and from which they were to render to Jehovah a double tithe, as the Egyptians did to their king. (1 Chron. 29: 15. Lev. 27: 20—38. Numb. 18: 21, 22. Deut. 12: 17—19;—14: 22, 29;—26: 12—15.)

13. The invisible king then published from the summit of Mount Sinai, with circumstances of awful grandeur, a brief summary of moral and religious duties, among which the worship of the only true God, and a total prohibition of the use of images, held the most conspicuous place. This was designed for the unalterable fundamental law of the commonwealth.—These first principles—the ten commandments—were to be further developed by Moses, and applied to particular cases, according to circumstances. (Exod. 20: 1—21, &c.) God finally promised his subjects such a government, that national prosperity should follow the observance of the law, as its reward; national calamity, the transgression of the law, as its punishment. (Deut. 27—30.)

14. That the Hebrews might have their peculiar relation to God kept constantly before their eyes, there was indeed no image allowed; but God, as their king, caused a royal tent to be erected in the centre of the encampment (where the pavilions of all kings and chiefs were usually erected), and to be fitted up as a moveable palace. It was divided into three apartments, in the innermost of which was the royal throne, supported by golden cherubs; and the footstool of the throne, a gilded ark, containing the tables of the law, the Magna Charta of church and state. In the ante-room, a gilded table was spread with bread and wine, as the royal table; and precious incense was burned. God made choice of the Levites for his courtiers, state officers, and palace guards; and Aaron for the chief officer of the court, and first minister of state. For the maintenance of these officers, he assigned one of the tithes which the Hebrews were to pay as rent for the use of the land. He finally required all the Hebrew males, of a suitable age, to repair to his palace every year, on the three great annual festivals, with presents, to render homage to their king; and as these days of renewing their homage were to be celebrated with festivity and joy, the second tithe was expended in providing the entertainments necessary for those

occasions. Thus the Hebrew could not separate his God and his king, and in every law was reminded equally of both.

15. As God was the king of the Hebrews, a defection from God was a defection from their rightful sovereign; and whoever worshipped another God, or practised any superstitions, by this very act renounced his allegiance to his king. He committed high treason, and was properly considered a public criminal. Whoever incited others to idolatry, incited them to rebellion, and was a mover of sedition. Therefore death was justly awarded as the punishment of idolatry, and its kindred arts, magic, necromancy, and soothsaying; and also of inciting to idolatry.

16. Though coercion, for the purpose of preserving the worship of the true God, was sanctioned by the Mosaic law, it was in that age no restraint upon the liberty of conscience. According to the universal opinion of the pagans, every people, and every country, must have its own deities; and each individual was left at liberty to choose what gods he would worship, and what neglect. Consequently, a superstitious Hebrew, or a foreign idolater, could not complain of violence done to his conscience, if he were required, while in Palestine, to discontinue the worship of idols, and, when he worshipped, to worship Jehovah only, the divine king of the country.

17. *Relation of the Hebrews to other Nations.*—The civil polity of the Hebrews was altogether peculiar. They were to govern themselves by this constitution in the midst of nations who looked upon idolatry as the only rational religion. Pagan superstition was made attractive to the senses, not merely by religious pomp and ceremony, but by indecent imagery and lascivious songs, by indulgence in fornication and lust. That the Hebrews might live uncontaminated, it was necessary that they should avoid all intimate friendships, and as much as possible all intercourse with pagans.

18. This separation from pagans was indispensable to the purpose which the Hebrews were destined to answer. But they were not to be the enemies of all foreigners. Individuals were forbidden to form intimate friendships with the heathen; but whenever they had any necessary transactions with them, they were required to treat them affectionately as neighbours. Precepts to this effect are of frequent occurrence in the Mosaic law. (Exod. 22: 20;—23: 9. Lev. 19: 34. Deut. 10: 18, 19;—24: 17;—27: 19, comp. Jer. 22: 3. Zech. 7: 10.) The Hebrew government could also enter into alliances with other states, when the public good required it. Moses, indeed, makes an exception in regard to a few nations; but the very exception is a tacit permission to form connections with others, when necessary.

19. *Hebrew Magistrates.*—The domestic polity of the Hebrews remained much as it had been under the patriarchal government, but reorganized in such a manner, that the people in every civil institution might recognise the sovereignty of Jehovah. The

Hebrews were still divided into twelve tribes, as before. The tribe of Levi was separated from the rest, and devoted to the service of the court and state; but the tribe of Joseph, whose two sons, Ephraim and Manasseh, were adopted by Jacob, (Gen. 48: 5,) was subdivided into two, and received two portions in the allotment of the promised land; so that the number of twelve tribes continued the same. The ancient subdivisions of the several tribes into collections of families, remained unchanged. The princes of tribes, and heads of families, as chiefs of these divisions, were the natural representatives of the people, and the magistrates in the realm of Jehovah. At the time of Moses, the larger collections of families were fifty-nine in number, (Num. 26: 5—50,) the heads of which, together with the twelve princes of the tribes, composed a council of seventy-one members.

20. The shoterim (genealogists, officers,) are also mentioned in connection with the elders, *i.e.* the princes of tribes, and heads of families; and the peculiar nature of their office may be understood from the employments in which they were engaged. In Egypt, it was their business to see that every Hebrew delivered the requisite number of bricks; they afterwards gave their discharge to those soldiers who were legally exempt from military duty; under Joshua, they communicated the orders of the general to the soldiery; and in the time of the kings, the chief shoter had a certain superintendence over the whole army, although he was not a military commander. (Exod. 5: 10 ff. Deut. 20: 5—9. Josh. 1: 10. 2 Chron. 26: 11.) In Palestine, they were distributed into every city, and performed the duties of their office for the city and its surrounding district. They were under the general superintendence of a chief genealogist, or shoter. (Deut. 16: 18;—31: 28. 2 Sam. 8: 16;—20: 25. 2 Chron. 26: 11. 2 Kings 25: 19. Isa. 33: 18. Jer. 52: 25. 1 Chron. 24: 6.)

21. To these magistrates Moses added a new class, for the administration of justice. When the people brought all their controversies before Moses, a whole day was scarcely sufficient to give them a hearing. Accordingly, Moses, to facilitate the administration of justice, by the advice of Jethro, divided the people into tens, fifties, hundreds, and thousands; and over each of these divisions he placed judges, who were recommended by the choice of the people. They were selected, for the most part, from the heads of families, genealogists, or other people of rank. (Exod. 18: 13—26. Deut. 1: 12—15, comp. Exod. 18: 21, 24.) As this institution was designed to be perpetual, when judges died or went out of office, their places were supplied by new elections.

22. There were, therefore, in every tribe, judges, genealogists, heads of families, and a prince. The judges administered justice. The genealogists kept the genealogical tables, in which they occasionally noted the most remarkable occurrences of their times. The heads of families, with the prince of the tribe, had

charge of the general concerns of each tribe; and to them the judges and genealogists were, in some sense, subordinate. In Palestine, these magistrates were distributed among the several cities; and those who resided in the same city composed the legislative assembly of that city and the surrounding district. When the magistrates of all the cities of any one tribe were collected, they formed the supreme court, or legislative assembly of the tribe. In like manner, the magistrates of several different tribes might assemble in one body, and legislate conjointly for all those tribes which they represented. When the magistrates of all the tribes met together, they formed the general legislature of the whole nation. (Deut. 25: 1—8;—19: 12;—22: 15;—25: 7, 9. Judg. 8: 14. 1 Sam. 16: 4. Judg. 20: 12—14;—1: 1—11.)

23. *The Learned Class.*—The Hebrews had long acknowledged as magistrates, the princes of tribes, heads of houses, and genealogists; and they admitted without difficulty the institution of judges, since their office was neither lucrative nor hereditary. When the invisible king afterwards secured for ever to the tribe of Levi the most important offices of the court, state, and church, even this was at first submitted to without opposition. (Exod. 13: 12, 13, comp. Numb. 3: 6—13;—8: 13—20. Deut 10: 8, 9;—31: 8—11. Exod. 32: 29.) Indeed, the Hebrews had witnessed in Egypt a similar institution, which was productive of great public benefit. The Egyptian priests were a separate tribe, which was divided into three subordinate classes; and they performed not only the services of religion, but the duties of all the civil offices to which learning was necessary. However suspicious such an order may appear to many at the present day, it was admirably adapted to those times; and by means of it, Egypt was raised far above all the nations of antiquity, both in regard to her civil institutions, and her advancement in the sciences. Hence even the Greeks, in ancient times, were accustomed to borrow their politics and their learning from the Egyptians.

24. In this manner, the tribe of Levi, which had greatly distinguished itself by zeal for Jehovah (Exod 32: 26—29), was actually devoted to the service of the sacred tabernacle and the altar, to all those offices of state in which learning was requisite, and thus to the cultivation of learning itself. (Numb. 18: 2—7.) The princes of tribes, and heads of houses, however, still retained their ancient honours; and the members of other tribes were permitted to hold offices, and devote themselves to study. Learning did not, as in Egypt, become the mystery of the learned order; nor was civil government transformed into a domination of priests.

25. In order to answer their destination, the Levites, more than other Hebrews, were to study the book of the law; to preserve and disseminate it in exact copies; to perform the duties of judges and genealogists, and consequently to be theologians,

jurists, and historians. As the priests and Levites were to test the accuracy of measures and weights, of which there were several models preserved in the sanctuary, it was necessary that they should understand something of mathematics; and as they were to determine and announce the moveable feasts, new moons, years, and intercalary years, they had occasion for the study of astronomy. (Deut. 10: 10;—28: 11. Lev. 25: 8—12.) The priests were to instruct the people in religion and law, and to solve questions which might arise upon these subjects. (Deut. 17: 9. Mal. 2: 4, 7.) It was the duty of the high-priest, as head of the learned class, and minister-of-state to king Jehovah, to superintend all other persons in office. When there was no chief magistrate of the community, he also, with the advice of the inferior priests, decided the most difficult legal controversies, and managed all the affairs of state, foreign and domestic.

26. The Hebrew priests and Levites were, therefore, even more important and useful, in church and state, than the three orders of Egyptian priests. Still they obtained, of all the promised land, only forty-eight cities, with small suburbs for their cattle; neither had they, like the Egyptian priests, real estate, or a definite salary for their services. But it was requisite that they should be liberally provided for in some other way; and accordingly, Jehovah assigned for their maintenance the tithes, which the Hebrews were bound to offer him as rent for the land which he had granted them. (Lev. 27: 21—23;—30: 32. Numb. 18: 21 ff. Deut. 14: 23.) Abraham had before given a tithe of all his spoils to Melchizedek, priest of the Most High. Many other nations afforded a like tribute to their gods; and it was only half what the Egyptians paid to their king.* In addition to this, Moses assigned to the priests alone the firstlings of animals, and the first-fruits of the soil, which amounted to about the sixtieth

* It is important to observe, that the two-tenths, or one-fifth, of the produce paid by all occupiers of land in Egypt, except of the land of the priests, was paid, not as a tax, but as the fixed rent, to the sovereign, as lord paramount or proprietor-in-chief of the land—just as our sovereign is considered by the constitution; this rent constituting, so far as can be ascertained from history, the only source of national revenue for many centuries, which were expended by the Pharaoh in the maintenance of his court, of the civil administration, of a numerous military caste or class, and in allowances to the priests, in addition to the rent of their land. The Hebrew tithe, or one-tenth of the produce, was also the rent payable by the occupiers of the land, to defray the expenses of government. But as Jehovah was the sovereign of the Hebrews, and as the Levites, his officers, performed civil duties, and as the Hebrew constitution did not recognise a military class, only one-half the rent payable in Egypt was required to defray the ordinary expenses of their theocratic government; the extraordinary expenses, as in war, being defrayed by the respective tribes as necessity required, forming an additional charge on the landholders. The feudal system, as it prevailed over Europe for centuries, recognised that the government had a claim on the produce of the land to the extent of its necessities; and the ordinary claims upon it were fixed. But in this country, the land has been exempted from these payments since 1660; and the only part of the rent of land that is not received by the landholders is the tithe, which the clergy have succeeded in retaining, to defray the expense of the religious instruction of the people in every parish. The proportion of the produce payable as rent by the occupiers of land in England and Scotland is at least *four-tenths*, which shows that the rent fixed by Joseph to be paid to the state by the occupiers of land in Egypt, and that fixed by Moses, left the occupiers a liberal provision for themselves and servants.—ED.

part of the annual income of a Hebrew; the ransom of the first-born male; the trespass offerings; most of the sin-offerings; the skins of the burnt-offerings and sin-offerings; that which was devoted; the breast and shoulder of every peace-offering; a shoulder, both cheeks, and maw, of all the sacrificed animals. This is what is meant by the expression, "the portion of the priests and Levites is Jehovah;" that is, what is offered to Jehovah. (Lev. 2: 12. Numb. 15: 18—21;—18: 8—21. Deut 18: 1—8. Exod. 34: 20. Numb. 18: 15, 16. Lev. 6: 10;—26: 29. Numb. 18: 9. Lev. 7: 8. Numb. 18: 14. Deut. 18: 3, 4. Numb. 18: 20, 21.)*

27. *Relation of the Tribes to each other.*—As each tribe had its own magistrates, and administered its own affairs, each composed an entire political community. We often find single tribes acting like independent nations, and, as might be expected, sometimes justly, and sometimes unjustly. Hence it is evident, that the Hebrew constitution authorized each tribe to provide for its own interests; or, if the strength of any one of them was insufficient for this purpose, to unite with some of the other tribes, and make common cause with them. We frequently find several tribes thus acting in concert. (Judg. 1: 1—3, 22;—7: 23, 24;—8: 1—3;—11: 1—11. 1 Chron. 5: 10, 18, 19. 2 Sam. 3: 17. 1 Kings 12: 1—24.)

28. But though each of the twelve tribes was in some respects an independent state, and as such had its separate interests; still they were all united together by certain general interests, and formed but one nation. They were all descended from one ancestor; and this common bond of union was strengthened by the necessity of mutual aid against their common enemies. Jehovah was the God and king of the whole nation, and the sacred tabernacle was common to all the tribes. They had one common oracle, the Urim and Thummim; one common high-priest, the prime-minister of the invisible king; a common learned class, who possessed cities in all the tribes; a common law of church and state. In short, the constitution was so contrived, that, notwithstanding the independence of all the tribes, each had a superintendence over the rest, in regard to their observance of the law.

* Some writers have censured Moses for his assignment of the tithes of more than six hundred thousand Hebrews, to about twelve thousand adult Levites. It made the income of a Levite only about five times the income of an ordinary Hebrew, which, considering the important services they rendered to the Hebrew state, and the necessity of a liberal provision for such offices, is very considerably less than the average salaries of public officers in the present day. The priests, who, besides the perquisites above mentioned, received from the Levites a tenth of the tithes (Numb. 17: 25—31), were indeed liberally endowed; but they bore the expense of the daily sacrifices, and of those which were offered at particular festivals. It must also be taken into the account, that the whole tribe of Levi received only forty-eight cities of the promised land; and consequently the portions of the other tribes were much greater than they would have otherwise been. Moreover, the tithes, especially at certain periods, were not regularly paid; and sometimes they were almost entirely withheld. (Mal. 3: 10. Nehem. 13: 10.) When the kingdom was divided, after the death of Solomon, the priests and Levites, who all attached themselves to the kingdom of Judah, received the revenues of only two tribes.

Any of the tribes could be called to account by the others for a transgression of the law; and if they refused to give satisfaction, they might be attacked, and punished by war. (Josh. 22: 9—34. Judg. 20.)

29. In a community composed of states so nearly independent, jealousies would naturally arise; and such actually existed between the tribes of Judah and Joseph—the two most powerful in the Hebrew nation. The latter inherited a double portion, and was divided into two, Ephraim and Manasseh. The tribe of Judah had the right of primogeniture; and the expected Messiah was to spring from them. These two tribes were perpetually struggling for the preponderance; and at last, after the death of Solomon, the descendants of Joseph having brought over to their party eight of the other tribes, forcibly separated themselves from Judah. These jealousies and dissensions were the first causes of the weakening of all the tribes, and of the final destruction of the whole commonwealth. (Gen. 49: 8—12, 22—26. Deut. 33: 7, 13—17.)

30. *Legislative Assemblies.*—As the twelve tribes had so many interests in common, the magistrates of all the tribes met in general assemblies to consult for the common good of the nation. These general assemblies were convened by the chief magistrate of the commonwealth, by the commander of the army, or by the judge or regent; and when the nation had no such supreme head, by the high-priest, in his capacity of prime-minister to the invisible king. These general assemblies exercised all the right of sovereignty. They declared war, made peace, formed alliances, chose generals, chief judges or regents, and kings. They prescribed to the rulers whom they elected, the principles by which they were to govern; they tendered to them the oath of office, and rendered them homage. The great assembly mentioned in the twentieth chapter of Judges, was undoubtedly convoked by the high-priest Phineas, who was so zealous for the honour of Jehovah. (Numb. 10: 2—4. Josh. 23: 2;—24: 1. 1 Sam. 11: 14, 15. Judg. 20: 27, 28.)

The place of assembling was usually before the door of the holy tabernacle, the palace of the invisible king, or on some spot which had acquired a degree of sacredness from its having been the theatre of some great event. While the Hebrews dwelt together in their encampments in Arabia, the assemblies were summoned together by the sound of the sacred trumpets; but after they were settled in Palestine, heralds must have been employed for this purpose. (Numb. 10: 3. Judg. 20. 1;—27: 28. 1 Sam. 10: 17. Josh. 24: 1. 1 Sam. 11: 14, 15. 1 Kings 12: 1. Numb. 10: 2—4.)

31. The legislative assemblies were of two kinds. The one was a select assembly, composed of the princes of the tribes, and the heads of thousands. The other was the whole congregation, including the genealogists, judges, and as many of the common

people as chose to attend. In speaking of these assemblies, "the rulers of the congregation" are sometimes mentioned first; then "the children of Israel;" and in some cases the women and children are referred to as being present. (Exod. 34: 31, 32. Deut. 29: 9—11. Judg. 20.)

32. The legislative assemblies received different denominations, according to the classes of persons of whom they were composed. When the whole people were collected, they formed what was styled, the whole assembly or congregation. There were also, the princes of the assembly; those called to the assembly; those deputed to the assembly; and the elders of the assembly, or senators. (Exod. 19: 7;—24: 3—8;—34: 31, 32;—35: 1—4. Lev. 4: 13;—8: 3—5. Numb. 11: 25, 30;—16: 2.)

33. It was to these assemblies that Moses immediately addressed himself, and to them he delivered the precepts which he received from Jehovah. The magistrates, particularly the genealogists, then communicated to the people the precepts and orders of Moses, each one informing those families which were under his immediate direction. In like manner the commands of the general, and the resolves of the assemblies, were made known.

34. There is no evidence that the magistrates received any instructions from the people, respecting the measures to be adopted in the legislative assemblies. Such a proceeding would have been contrary to the spirit of the patriarchal government, which was to a considerable extent preserved in the Mosaic institutions. The assemblies acted independently. On very important occasions, however, of great public interest, they sometimes submitted their resolves to the people for their approbation; as was the case when Saul was raised to the throne. Moses permitted the people to elect their own judges; and Jehovah was made King of the Hebrews, by the voluntary choice of the whole nation. At least, all swore fealty to him, without exception of even the women and children. (1 Sam. 11: 14, 15, comp. Josh. 23: 2 ff;—24: 1 ff. Exod. 19: 7, 8;—24: 3—8, comp. Deut. 29: 9—14.)

35. *Form of Government.*—God condescended to be elected King of the Hebrews; to give them a code of civil laws; to decide their more important litigations; and to solve inquiries which they proposed. The obstinate and disobedient Hebrews he punished as rebellious subjects of his government. (Numb. 17: 1—11;—27: 1—11;—26: 1—10;—15: 32—41. Josh. 7: 16—22. Judg. 1: 1, 2;—20: 18, 27, 28. 1 Sam. 14: 37;—23: 9—12;—30: 8. 2 Sam. 2: 1. Numb. 11: 33—35;—12: 1—15;—16: 1—50. Deut. 18: 18.) According to his promise, he sent them prophets, by whom he made known the measures which the civil rulers were to adopt; and he led the nation on to the accomplishment of their *great design* (the preservation of the true religion), by a particular providence, such as no other people had

ever been the subjects of. God thus reigning as king of the Hebrews, their form of government was, in fact, a theocracy. This species of government was particularly suited to the character and necessities of those remote ages. But while in pagan theocracies, religion was employed merely as a means of strengthening and perpetuating the civil constitution;—in the Hebrew theocracy, on the contrary, the preservation of religion was the *end*; the civil constitution, the *means* of attaining it.

36. But though the constitution of the Hebrews was in reality theocratical, yet it was necessary that their polity should partake more or less of the usual forms of human governments. Therefore, that the sovereignty of Jehovah might be the more visible, he employed no viceroy; but he had a minister of state, so to speak, in the person of the high-priest. The Hebrew elders, or magistrates, were very jealous of their prerogatives; and their powers were so extensive, that Josephus denominates the government an aristocracy. Moses acknowledged their authority in the strongest terms, and submitted their demands to the decision of Jehovah. (Numb. 11: 16;—14: 5;—16: 4 ff;—27: 5;—36: 5, 6.) But they could neither enact laws on their own authority, nor levy taxes—the people possessing so much influence, that it was necessary, in all important cases, to have their approbation.

37. *The Chief Magistrate.*—The invisible king Jehovah was, in reality, the only chief magistrate of the Hebrew state. Moses was magistrate of the whole nation; but he held his office merely as an internuncio between God and the Hebrews; and as soon as the commission was executed, the office expired. Accordingly, there was no successor appointed; for Moses had accomplished all the purposes for which his office was instituted.

38. At first, Moses ruled the whole state, with the assistance of the ordinary magistrates only. But as the people, and even the magistrates, were very jealous and unmanageable, and constantly inclined to rebellion, it was very difficult for this messenger of God to perform all the duties of his office, without more efficacious aid. While encamped in the Arabian desert, a general discontent broke out among the people, on account of the want of flesh. On this occasion, Moses, at the command of God, instituted a council of state, consisting of seventy-two Hebrews, distinguished for wisdom, and possessing the confidence of the people, who were to assist him in directing the affairs of the nation. They were selected from among the princes, the heads of associated families, and the genealogists. To prevent all jealousy between the tribes, six were chosen from each. (Numb. 11: 24, 25.) But this council, having been appointed for the express purpose of aiding Moses in the discharge of the arduous duties of his peculiar office, no longer had an existence after his death. *In the history of the succeeding periods, there is not the slightest mention of such a council—not even in those times when it must*

have acted a most important part, had it been in existence;—such as when Saul became king; when the tribe of Judah, after his death, placed David on the throne; when, after the death of Solomon, ten tribes revolted from the house of David, and elected Jeroboam king; when the usurping queen Athaliah was hurled from the throne, and Joash placed upon it; to say nothing of the numerous revolutions in the kingdom of Israel. The Rabbins, therefore, are not to be credited, when they assert that the council instituted by Moses continued uninterruptedly to the latest times, and that the same institution was perpetuated in the Sanhedrim, which existed after the time of the Maccabees.*

39. *The Judges.*—The Mosaic state was so organized that there could be regularly no chief magistrate except Jehovah, and no minister of state except the high-priest; yet it is plain, from Deut. 17 : 9, that when the necessities of the nation required it, a supreme ruler of the whole community might be legally chosen. Such a ruler was denominated Judge, or rather Regent or Governor; and the command of armies fell to him, as the supreme executive officer. Eli and Samuel were not military men; Deborah was judge before she laid the plan of a war against Jabin; and of Jair, Ibzan Elon, and Abdon, it is uncertain whether they ever held any military command.

The office of judge, or regent, was held during life; but it was not hereditary, neither could they appoint their successors. Their authority was limited by the law alone: they could issue orders, but had no power to enact laws; they could neither levy taxes, nor appoint officers, except, perhaps, in the army. Their authority extended only over those tribes by whom they had been elected or acknowledged; for, as we have before remarked, several of the judges presided over separate tribes. There was no income attached to their office, unless it might be a larger share in the spoils, and those presents which were made them as testimonials of respect. (Judg. 8 : 24.)

40. *Condition of the Hebrews in the Times of the Judges.*—From a comparison of the periods during which the Hebrews were oppressed by their enemies, with those during which they were independent, and governed by their own constitution, it is found that the nation, in the times of the judges, had much more of prosperity than of adversity. The dominion of the judges continued four hundred and fifty years; but the whole time of foreign oppression amounts only to one hundred and eleven years, which is scarcely a fourth part of this period. Neither was the nation in such a state of anarchy at this time, as has generally been supposed. There were regular judicial tribunals, at which justice could be obtained; and when there was

* Petau fixes the establishment of the Sanhedrim, or house of judgment, at the time when Gabinus, the Roman governor of Judea, erected tribunals in the five principal cities, of Jerusalem, Gadara, Amathus, Jericho, and Sephoris, A. C. 54; whilst Basnage fixes its origin in the time of Judas Maccabees, or that of his brother Jonathan, 163—144 A. C.

no supreme regent, the public welfare was provided for by the ordinary rulers. (Ruth 4: 1—11. Judg. 8: 22;—10: 17, 18;—11: 1—11. 1 Sam. 4: 1;—7: 1, 2.)

SECTION X.*

THE HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

The Monarchy, until the Division of the Kingdom. 1096—976 B.C.

1. [THE Hebrews desired the appointment of a king, that there might be a regular succession of supreme civil rulers over them, to preserve union, and protect each tribe with the collected strength of all; that under him the affairs of the government might be more promptly administered; that, if he were a man devoted to Jehovah, he could more effectually suppress or prevent idolatry, and thus place the welfare of the state on a more solid foundation. The Hebrews sought this change in their constitution, not by their own power, but in accordance with the principles of theocracy—by the intervention of a prophet; and they effected it without bloodshed—a manifest proof that the time of the judges was neither a barbarous nor a heroic age.

2. Saul, of the tribe of Benjamin, was nominated by Samuel, and, at a general assembly convened for that purpose, was chosen by lot, the first king of the Hebrews, B. C. 1096. The terms of the government established by Samuel with the consent of the rulers, were sworn to by Saul, and the record deposited in the sacred tabernacle. (1 Sam. 10: 25.) What powers these terms allowed the king, and what they withheld from him, is nowhere mentioned: we only know that the royal authority was not intended to be absolute. Saul proved himself an able military commander, and civil administrator. He carried on successful wars against the Ammonites, Philistines, Moabites, Amalekites, and the Arabs of the desert. He tolerated no instance of rebellion against Jehovah, and was very severe in the punishment of idolatrous arts. But failing to adapt himself to the theocratic nature of the Hebrew constitution, the prophet Samuel was directed privately to anoint David, a youth of about twenty years of age, to succeed him in the kingdom, about 1064 B. C. (1 Sam. 16: 12, 13.) David afterwards, in an expedition against the Philistines, full of confidence in God, combated with the giant Goliath, whom no one else dared to encounter. The triumph which he obtained acquired for him the friendship of Jonathan, the son of Saul, and made him famous throughout the nation. He afterwards distinguished himself as

* This section of Jewish history is principally taken from Jahn's *Hebrew Commonwealth*.

- an able soldier, and became the son-in-law of Saul; but nevertheless he was persecuted by him, and obliged to flee for shelter to his former enemies, the Philistines. In the war with them, Saul became disheartened, and applied for help even to enchantresses, whom he had formerly, in obedience to the law, punished with death, as rebels against Jehovah. The battle that was afterwards fought in the plain of Jezreel (Esdraelon) proved very disastrous; and Saul, that he might not fall into the hands of his enemies, slew himself, in 1056 B. C., after a reign of forty years. His three eldest sons were left dead on the field. Abner, his general, drew off the remains of the army to the other side of the Jordan, and caused Ish-bosheth, the youngest son of Saul, to be proclaimed king at Mahanaim. (1 Sam. 28;—31. 1 Chron. 10. 2 Sam. 2: 8—11. Acts 13: 21.)

3. After the death of Saul, David went to Hebron, and was there made king of Judah. The other eleven tribes having done homage to Ish-bosheth, he sent his general, Abner, with an army to force the tribe of Judah to obedience; but being defeated by Joab, the general of David, the war was afterwards suffered to die away without an express treaty. Two years and a-half after, Ish-bosheth was treacherously murdered by his generals, Rechab and Baanah; but five years passed before David was acknowledged king of Israel, as well as Judah. (2 Sam. 5.) The first act of David's reign was to besiege Jerusalem, which till then had remained in the hands of the Jebusites. The citadel on Mount Zion was taken; and as the city was conveniently situated, he made it the metropolis of his kingdom, and built a palace on the site of the citadel, which gave occasion to its being called the city of David. He brought the affairs of the government into order, improved the military, and gave especial attention to the management of public worship, as the most efficacious means of promoting religion and morality, and, consequently, obedience to the invisible Supreme Monarch. David was engaged in almost constant wars, in which he was always successful: he extended his kingdom from the Euphrates to the Mediterranean, and from Phœnicia to the Red Sea; and made himself formidable to all his neighbours. David, as a man, was in his sentiments and conduct a true Israelite; as a king, he was a faithful vassal of Jehovah. He was punished for various sins he had committed; and as it was brought upon him by his own children, it became the more distressing. Adonijah, the eldest prince, made an attempt to seize the sceptre; but his design was frustrated, and Solomon confirmed in the government about six months before his death. He committed to Solomon the plans and models of the temple, with the gold and silver he had collected for it, and charging him to be constantly faithful to God. *David was thirty years old when he began to reign. He reigned seven years and a-half at Hebron, and thirty-three at Jerusalem—in all, forty and a-half years; and died*

aged 71, B. C. 1016. He was the author of many of the Psalms in the collection which bears his name.

4. Solomon was only eighteen or twenty years old when he began to reign. The arms of the Hebrews were feared by all the neighbouring people, and consequently the reign of Solomon was peaceable. The warlike and civilized Philistines,* the Edomites,† Moabites,‡ and Ammonites,§ the nomade Arabs of the desert,|| and the Syrians of Damascus,¶ were all tributary to him. Peace gave to all his subjects prosperity. The trade which he introduced brought wealth into the country, and promoted the arts and sciences; the latter finding an active protector in the king, who was himself one of the most distinguished of the learned men. The building of the temple, and of several palaces, introduced foreign artists, by whom the Hebrews were instructed. Many foreigners, and even sovereign princes, were attracted to Jerusalem, in order to see and converse with the royal sage. (1 Kings 10: 1.) But in all this domestic splendour, Solomon fell short of the wisdom of his father. He governed in an arbitrary manner; and to defray the expenses of his court, he imposed heavy burdens on his subjects. His numerous harem, which consisted of one thousand females, was an express violation of the law of Moses. (1 Kings 11: 3.) It was no violation of the law, to tolerate idolatry, which was enjoined on the Hebrews only; but to allow the idolatry of his wives in his own capital—that he should build temples to the gods, if he did not himself offer them sacrifices—this was a breach of the fundamental law of the Hebrew state; it was a seducing of the Hebrews to idolatry; it was encouraging them to rebel against Jehovah their king. (1 Kings 11: 4—8.) On this account, the prosperity of Solomon was interrupted by disquiets in Idumea and Syria; and it was foretold to him that only one tribe (Judah and Benjamin, mentioned as one, because Jerusalem, the capital, was situated on the borders of each,) should remain to his heirs. The dominion over the other ten tribes was promised to Jeroboam by Ahijah the prophet. Solomon reigned forty years, and died at about fifty-eight years of age, in 975 B. C.; and, notwithstanding his glory, was but little lamented. Of all the works written by him, we have have nothing

* The Philistines inhabited the sea-coast of Canaan, which from them took the name of Philistia, or Palestine. They seem originally to have migrated from Egypt to Caphtor, or Crete, (Gen. 10: 14), and thence to have passed over to Palestine, under the name of Caphtorim, where they drove out the Avim, who dwelt from Hazerim to Azzah, or Gaza. (Deut. 2: 23.)

† The Edomites, the Idumeans of the present day. The land of Edom extended from the Dead Sea to the Elanitic Gulf of the Red Sea. It was there where Moses sojourned for forty years.

‡ Moabites, the descendants of Moab, the son of Lot, whose habitation was east of Jordan, and adjacent to the Dead Sea.

§ The Ammonites, the descendants of Ammon, also a son of Lot. Their capital city was Rabbah afterwards Philadelphia, which stood on the Jabbok, south-east of Judea.

|| The Bedouin Arabs of the present day.

¶ The country called Syria of Damascus (2 Sam. 8: 5,) was the fertile plains east and south-east of Antilibanus. It was called by the Orientals, the *Paradise on Earth*.

remaining but his Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Solomon. Some have attributed to him the Book of Wisdom and Ecclesiasticus ; and the Jews believe he was the author of Psalms 72 and 127.

5. On the death of Solomon, the rulers assembled at Shechem, the capital of the powerful tribe of Joseph, which had always been the jealous rival of Judah. They wished to enter into a new stipulation with Rehoboam, the heir to the throne, which precaution had been neglected at the accession of Solomon. Rehoboam required three days to deliberate on their proposal ; and when, after that time, instead of granting their request without hesitancy, as the elder and more prudent counsellors urged him to do, he threatened them, according to the advice of his younger courtiers, with a still more intolerable yoke, telling them, "*My father chastised you with whips, but I will chastise you with scorpions.*" (1 Kings 12: 11.) On receiving that insolent answer, the ten tribes disclaimed allegiance to him, and elected Jeroboam, the son of Nebat, for their sovereign. He was of the tribe of Ephraim or Joseph, which had received in ancient times some obscure promise of a crown. (Gen. 49: 26. Deut. 23: 16.)

6. Thus the great and powerful empire of David and Solomon was parted into two very unequal parts. Jeroboam possessed ten tribes, together with all the tributary nations, as far as the Euphrates ; and this was now called the kingdom of Israel. Rehoboam retained only the two tribes of Judah and Benjamin. To this division also belonged Philistia and Edom ; but the whole of this territory, which was now called the kingdom of Judah, included scarcely a fourth part of the dominions of Solomon. Rehoboam determined to reduce the ten tribes to obedience, and for this purpose he collected an army ; but the prophet Shemaiah announced to him the command of king Jehovah to relinquish the enterprise. Rehoboam was still reasonable enough to see the propriety of this requisition. No definite treaty of peace, however, was concluded ; and the frontiers of the two kingdoms always presented a hostile appearance. (1 Kings 12: 21—24. 2 Chron. 11: 1—4;—12: 15.)

SECTION XI.*

THE HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

General View of the Two Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

1. [IN the preceding history, we have seen that Jehovah, from the time of Moses to the death of Solomon, always governed the

* This Section of Jewish history is principally taken from Jahn's Hebrew Commonwealth.

Hebrews according to the promises and threatenings which he had pronounced to them from Mount Horeb. The same course was pursued in the government of the two kingdoms. If the kings of both had viewed the last great event, the sundering of the empire, as a warning to govern their subjects according to the fundamental laws of the state, and to treat them as the subjects of Jehovah, then both kingdoms might have enjoyed uninterrupted prosperity. But as the kings often by idolatry rebelled against their divine Sovereign, and treated their subjects in the manner described by Isaiah and Ezekiel (Isa. 54: 9—12; Ezek. 34), under the image of wicked shepherds, there arose a succession of prophets, who, by impressive declarations, and symbolic actions, reminded rulers and subjects of their duties to Jehovah, and threatened them with punishment; and there followed, as in ancient times, calamity after calamity, in order to bring the nation to reflection.

2. In the kingdom of Israel there was, from the first, the greatest disregard of the divine laws. It was consequently destroyed one hundred and thirty-four years earlier than the kingdom of Judah. Jeroboam trusted little to the divine promise made to him by the prophet Ahijah, and feared that if the people went to Jerusalem to attend the feasts, they would return to their allegiance to the house of David. To prevent such a step, he set up two golden or gilded calves as images of Jehovah—an imitation of the Apis and Mnevis of the Egyptians, among whom he had long dwelt. One of these, Apis, was located at Bethel, not far from Shechem, for the southern tribes; and the other, Mnevis, at Dan, for the tribes in the north. Jeroboam built temples for these images, erected altars, appointed priests from all the tribes without distinction, and even performed the priestly functions himself. He appointed the festivals an entire month later, and commanded that they should be celebrated before the images of Mnevis and Apis. These changes became afterwards so interwoven with the constitution of the kingdom, that even the more pious successors of Jeroboam did not venture to abolish them.

3. These rebellious deviations from the law, which had been so impressively inculcated on the whole people when they desired the establishment of a monarchy, and afterwards on Jeroboam himself, (1 Sam. 8: 10—12; 1 Kings 11: 26—38,) did not prevent Jehovah from governing the kingdom of Israel according to his sanctions. In the sequel, it will be seen how he exterminated those royal families, one after another, who retained the arbitrary institutions of Jeroboam, and tolerated and patronized idolatry, with all its vices. Each extermination of a reigning family, he caused to be announced beforehand by a prophet, and the successor appointed. The higher their corruptions rose, the more decisive and striking were the declarations and signs which showed to the Israelites that the Lord of

the universe was their Lord and King, and that all idols were as nothing, when opposed to him. Even Naaman the Syrian acknowledged, and the Syrians generally experienced, to their sorrow, that the God of the Hebrews was not a mere national God, but that his power extended over all nations.* At last, after all milder punishments proved fruitless, these rebellions were punished by the destruction of the kingdom, and the captivity of the people, as had been predicted by Moses, and afterwards by Ahijah, Hosea, Amos, and other prophets. (Deut. 28: 36. 1 Kings 14: 15. Amos 5.)

4. Divine Providence was likewise favourable or adverse to the kingdom of Judah, according as the people obeyed or transgressed the law, only here the royal family remained unchanged, in accordance with the promise given to David. There were many idolatrous and rebellious kings of Judah; but they were always succeeded by those of better views, who put a stop to idolatry, re-established theocracy in the hearts of their subjects, and, by the aid of prophets, priests, and Levites, and of the services of the temple, restored the knowledge and worship of God. Judah, therefore, though much smaller than Israel, preserved her national existence one hundred and thirty-four years longer; but at last, as no durable reformation was produced, she experienced the same fate as her sister-kingdom, in fulfilment of the predictions of Moses and other prophets. (Deut. 28: 36.)

5. The history of the two kingdoms should be viewed as a history of a real theocracy, and thus, as a continued execution of the determination of God, that the true religion should be preserved on the earth; and in this view it certainly deserves our most attentive study. We shall divide it into five periods.

The First Period closes with the year 91 of the Revolt, 884 B. C., when both kingdoms lose their king in the same day.

The Second Period extends to the 216th year of the Revolt, 759 B. C., when Pekahiah, king of Israel, is murdered, and Uzziah dies soon after.

The Third Period extends to the destruction of the kingdom of Israel, in the 258d year of the Revolt, 722 B. C., and the sixth year of Hezekiah's reign. In the kingdom of Judah, this period extends to the death of Hezekiah, 276 of the Revolt, 699 B. C.

The Fourth Period extends from the death of Hezekiah to the death of Josiah, 364 of the Revolt, 611 B. C.

The Fifth Period extends from the death of Josiah to the destruction of the kingdom of Judah, 387 of the Revolt, 588 B. C.]

* Benhadad II., king of Syria, having been defeated by Ahab, king of Israel, was persuaded by his generals that the God of the Hebrews was god of the mountains only, and that he should attack him in the plain. In the following year he followed their advice, and was defeated and taken prisoner, with the loss of 100,000 of his people. (1 Kings 20.) Naaman, one of his generals, was cured of a leprosy, by washing himself in the Jordan, agreeably to the command of Elisha the prophet. (2 Kings 5.)

TABLE OF THE KINGS OF JUDAH AND ISRAEL.

JUDAH.				ISRAEL.			
	Year of Revolt.	a. c.	Reigned.*		Year of Revolt.	a. c.	Reigned.*
FIRST PERIOD.							
1 Rehoboam,	1	975	17 years.	1 Jeroboam,	1	975	22 years.
2 Abijam,	17	958	3 —				
3 Asa,	20	955	41 —				
				2 Nadab,	22	954	2 —
				3 Baasha,	24	952	24 —
				4 Elah,	45	930	2 —
				5 Zimri,	45	930	7 days.
				6 Omri,	46	929	12 years.
				Tibni,	46	929	6 —
				7 Ahab,	57	918	22 —
4 Jehosaphat,	61	914	25 —				
				8 Ahaziah,	78	897	2 —
5 Jehoram,	84	891	8 —	9 Jehoram,†	79	896	12 —
6 Ahaziah,†	90	883	1 —				
SECOND PERIOD.							
Athaliah,	91	884	6 —				
7 Joash,	98	877	40 —	10 Jehu,	91	884	28 —
				11 Jehoahaz,	119	856	17 —
				12 Joash,	135	840	16 —
8 Amaziah,	137	838	29 —				
				13 Jeroboam II.	150	825	41 —
9 Uzziah,	164	811	52 —				
				Interregnum,	191	784	11 —
				14 Zachariah,	202	773	6 mths.
				15 Shallum,	202	773	1 mth.
				16 Menahem,	202	773	10 years.
				17 Pekahiah,	212	761	2 —
THIRD PERIOD.							
10 Jotham,	216	759	16 —	18 Pekah,	216	759	20 —
11 Ahaz,	232	743	16 —				
				Interregnum,	235	740	9 —
12 Hezekiah,	247	728	29 —				
				19 Hoshea,	244	731	9 —
				End of kingd.	253	722	—
FOURTH PERIOD.							
13 Manasseh,	276	699	55 —				
14 Amon,	331	644	2 —				
15 Josiah,	333	642	31 —				
FIFTH PERIOD.							
16 Jehoahaz,	364	611	3 mths.				
17 Jehoiakim,	364	611	11 years.				
18 Jehoiakim II	375	600	3 mths.				
19 Zedekiah,	375	600	11 years.				
End of kingd.	387	588	—				

* The number of years stated in the Bible.

† The Scripture duration of the respective reigns, taken together, does not accord with the received chronology. In the line of Judah, from the Revolt to the death of Ahaziah, is 98 years by reigns, and 91 by the chronology. In the line of Israel, from the Revolt to the death of Jehoram, is 98 years by reigns, and by the chronology 91. But as Ahaziah and Jehoram were murdered in the same day (2 Kings 9), the discrepancy in the two modes of computation probably arises from the months beyond a year being taken for a whole year, or the reign of one king dating before the death of his predecessor, as in the case of Tibni and Omri (1 Kings 16: 21), or our own Henry VI. and Edward IV. The differences in the other periods may be accounted for in the same manner.

SECTION XII.*

THE HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

The Kingdom of Judah, from the Revolt of the Ten Tribes, to the Destruction of Jerusalem, 975—586 B. C.

1. REHOBOAM reigned seventeen years, or to the year 958 B. C. The commencement of his reign was not reprehensible; but when he saw himself firmly seated on the throne, he permitted idolatry. For his punishment, Divine Providence suffered Shishak I., king of Egypt, to invade Judea. He took all the cities; and even Jerusalem itself was obliged to surrender unconditionally to the conqueror, as had been made known by the prophet Shemaiah. Shishak contented himself with the riches of the temple and of the royal treasury, and returned to Egypt. Jeroboam, king of Israel, while in exile, had enjoyed the protection of this monarch, and was encouraged probably by him to attack Judah, to secure himself against the hostilities of Rehoboam. (1 Kings 14: 21—31. 2 Chron. 12.)

2. His son Abijah, or Abijam, succeeded, and reigned only three years, to the 20th year of the Revolt, 955 B. C. He gained an important victory over Jeroboam, which very much weakened the kingdom of Israel, while Judah made constant progress in power and importance. (1 Kings 15: 1—8. 2 Chron. 13.)

3. Abijah's son, Asa, reigned forty-one years, to 61 of the Revolt, 914 B. C. He ascended the throne two years before the death of Jeroboam; and as he was then very young, the affairs of the kingdom were administered by his mother, who encouraged idolatry by all the means in her power. But as soon as Asa assumed the government, he rooted out idolatry, and neglected no opportunity to improve his kingdom; for which purpose the peace he enjoyed during the first ten years of his reign afforded time and opportunity. In the eleventh year of his reign, he defeated the numerous host of Zerah, king of Cush, (undoubtedly both of the Arabian and Ethiopian Cush,) who had penetrated through Arabia Petrea into the Vale of Zephathah, with a million of men and three hundred chariots. The prophet Azariah declared this splendid victory to be a consequence of the king's confidence in Jehovah, and exhorted him to perseverance; upon which he abolished the remains of idolatry, and caused the whole people to renew their covenant with Jehovah. Notwithstanding, in the last years of his life, he treated the prophet Hanani, and others, with great severity. (1. Kings 15: 9—24. 2 Chron. 14—16.)*

4. Jehoshaphat ascended the throne in the fourth year of Ahab, king of Israel, and reigned twenty-five years, to the 84th of the Revolt, and 891 B. C. He was still more faithful to Jehovah than his father Asa had been. He not only suppressed idola-

* In the time of Asa, the celebrated poet Hesiod flourished among the Greeks, about the year 944 A. C., according to the Parian Marbles.

try, but he sent out priests and Levites into every town to instruct the people. These teachers he raised to the rank of royal counsellors, in order to increase their authority. He also travelled himself through the country, to see that his orders were executed. He improved the administration of justice by the establishment of a supreme tribunal, and brought his military affairs to a prosperous condition. He was the author of the first treaty between Judah and Israel. He visited king Ahab at Samaria, and joined him in an expedition against the Syrians. But this step was disapproved of by the prophet Jehu, the son of Hanani; and, as the enterprise proved unfortunate, Jehoshaphat sunk greatly in the estimation of the neighbouring people. (1 Kings 22: 1—50. 2 Chron. 17—20.)*

5. His son Jehoram reigned eight years. He had married the Israelitish princess Athaliah, the daughter of Ahab and Jezebel, the unhappy consequences of which union now began to be visible. All the brothers of the king were murdered, through the influence of Athaliah; and idolatry was introduced by royal authority. Upon this, the Edomites revolted; and although they were once defeated by Jehoram, they nevertheless made themselves independent, according to the prophecy of Isaac. (Gen. 27: 40.) The Philistines also rebelled; and the Arabians, who bordered on the Cushites, made an incursion into Judea, plundered the whole country, and even Jerusalem and the royal palace. They led away into slavery all the women of the king's harem, and all the royal princes, with the exception of Jehoahaz, or, as he is called, Ahaziah. Libnah, the city of the priests, also renounced allegiance to Jehoram, because he had forsaken Jehovah, the God of his fathers. Jehoram died a miserable death, and was denied the honours of a royal burial. (2 Kings 8: 16—24. 2 Chron. 21.) His son Ahaziah, or Jehoahaz, succeeded him, and reigned only one year. He suffered himself to be governed in everything by the counsels of his idolatrous and wicked mother, Athaliah. He joined Jehoram, king of Israel, in an expedition against Hazael, king of Damascus or Syria, for the conquest of the city of Ramoth-gilead; and he afterwards visited him when he lay wounded in his summer palace at Jezreel, where he was slain by Jehu, both kings dying on the same day, in the year 91 of the Revolt, 884 B. C. (2 Kings 8: 25—29;—9: 27—30. 2 Chron. 22: 1—9.)

During the first eighty-five years of this period, the kingdom of Judah made rapid advances; but afterwards it continually degenerated, until it finally lost all its power.

6. When Athaliah heard that her son, king Ahaziah, had been slain by Jehu, she took possession of the vacant throne, and murdered all the males of the royal family, with the exception of Joash, the youngest son of Ahaziah, who, being then an infant,

* During this reign, Homer flourished among the Greeks. The Parian Marbles place him in the year 907 B. C.

was rescued by Jehosheba, a sister of Ahaziah, and privately brought up in an apartment of the temple. The idolatrous Athaliah reigned more than six years, to the 98th of the Revolt, 877 B. C. During this year, by the management of the high-priest Jehoiada, the young prince was publicly anointed king in the temple, under the protection of a strong escort of well-armed Levites. Athaliah at the same time suffered the punishment of death, which she had merited by her idolatry, treason, and violent usurpation. On this occasion, the covenant with Jehovah was renewed; and the people bound themselves by an oath to observe it—a precaution which had been rendered very necessary by the long continuance of an idolatrous government. (2 Kings 11. 2 Chron. 22: 9—12;—23: 1—21.)

7. Joash, or Jehoash, reigned forty years, to the 137th of the Revolt, 838 B. C. During the life of Jehoiada, the idolatry introduced by Athaliah was abolished; and, about the year 120 of the Revolt, the temple was repaired. But after the death of Jehoiada, the rulers requested toleration for the worship of idols, which Joash was weak enough to grant; and when the prophet Zechariah predicted national calamities on this account, the king was so ungrateful as to suffer him to be stoned in the court of the temple, though he was the son of Jehoiada, to whom he was indebted for his life and throne. But this ingratitude and cruelty did not prevent the fulfilment of the prophecy. Hazael, king of Syria, who then possessed all Gilead, (now Belka,) came to Jerusalem with a small body of troops; put to death the rulers who had demanded the toleration of idolatry; and returned, laden with spoil, to Damascus. Joash, who had been wounded, was slain soon after by his own servants, and denied the honours of a royal burial. (2 Kings 12. 2 Chron. 24.)

8. Amaziah reigned twenty-nine years, to 164 of the Revolt, 811 B. C. Like his father, Joash, he began well, and then degenerated. He put to death those concerned in the murder of his father, but spared their families, in obedience to the law. (Deut. 24: 16. Ezek. 18: 20.) At the admonition of a prophet, he dismissed one hundred thousand men, whom he had hired from the kingdom of Israel to assist him in a war against the Edomites. He, however, gave them the one hundred talents of silver which had been stipulated for their wages; and he then gained a decisive victory over his enemies, in the Valley of Salt, as the prophet had foretold. But when he afterwards worshipped the gods which he had taken from the Edomites, the success of his arms ceased. He engaged in a war with Jehoahaz, king of Israel, on account of the mercenary Israelitish troops, who murdered three thousand Jews, and plundered in every place through which they passed. Amaziah was defeated, and taken prisoner, at the battle of Beth-shemesh. Jehoahaz replaced the captive monarch on his throne; but he plundered Jerusalem and the temple, demolished four hundred cubits of

the city wall, and took hostages with him to Samaria. Amaziah was finally assassinated by conspirators at Lachish, whither he had fled for protection. (2 Kings 14: 1—22. 2 Chron. 25.)

9. Uzziah, also called Azariah, was raised to the throne by the people, after the death of his father, Amaziah. He was then sixteen years old; and he reigned fifty-two years, to the 216th of the Revolt, 759 B. C.* He conquered Elath, Gath, Jabneh, and Ashdod: he defeated the Arabs of Gur-baal, the Mehunims, and the Ammonites, and advanced the interests of agriculture. He was for the most part obedient to the law, though he did not demolish the unlawful altars; and on one occasion he attempted to usurp the privileges of the priesthood. For this act of impiety, he was punished with leprosy; and for the rest of his life he dwelt in a separate house. Meanwhile, the affairs of government were administered by his son Jotham. (2 Kings 15: 1—7. 2 Chron. 26.)

10. After the death of Uzziah, the reign of Jotham continued sixteen years, to 232 of the Revolt, 743 B. C. He was obedient to the law: he continued the improvements of the kingdom begun by his father; he built several fortresses, and made the Ammonites tributary. In the last year of his reign, the alliance between Pekah, king of Israel, and Rezin, king of Damascus, was formed; but the effects of it did not appear till after his death.† (2 Kings 15: 32—38.)

11. Ahaz, the son and successor of Jotham, was the most corrupt monarch that had hitherto appeared in Judah. His reign continued sixteen years, till 247 of the Revolt, 728 B. C. He respected neither Jehovah, the law, nor the prophets; and broke through all the restraints which the law imposed on the Hebrew kings. He introduced the religion of the Syrians into Jerusalem, altered the temple in many respects according to the Syrian model, and finally shut it up. His cowardice was equal to his superstition. After he had suffered a few repulses from Pekah and Rezin, his allied foes; when the Edomites had revolted from him, and the Philistines were making incursions into his country; notwithstanding a sure promise of divine deliverance, he solicited the aid of Pul, king of Assyria. But the Assyrian king afforded Ahaz no real assistance. On the contrary, the Jewish king could scarcely purchase a release from his troublesome protector by all the riches of the temple, the nobility, and the royal treasury. (2 Kings 16. 2 Chron. 28.)

12. Hezekiah succeeded, and reigned twenty-nine years, to the 276th of the Revolt, 699 B. C. He did not follow the bad example of his father. Immediately on his accession to the throne,

* The famous era of the Olympiads commenced in the thirty-fifth year of Uzziah, 199 of the Revolt, 776 B. C.

† In the eleventh year of Jotham, 227 of the Revolt, 748 B. C., the city of Rome was founded, with the destinies of which the Hebrews were one day to be so intimately connected. Others place the founding of this city 750 or 752 B. C. In the year following, viz the twelfth of Jotham, 228 of the Revolt, 747 B. C., commences the era of Nabonassar, in the canon of Ptolemy.

he opened the temple, restored the worship of God, abolished idolatry, destroyed the brazen serpent of Moses, which had become an object of idolatrous worship, overthrew the altars illegally erected to Jehovah, and caused the festivals to be regularly celebrated. He built new fortifications and magazines, and supplied Jerusalem more plentifully with water by a new aqueduct. He conquered the Philistines, and shook off the Assyrian yoke, to which Ahaz had submitted. But in the fourteenth year of his reign, Sennacherib came with a large army to reduce Judah to obedience, and to conquer Egypt. Hezekiah submitted, and paid the three hundred talents of silver, and thirty talents of gold, which were required [about £287,700]. But after Sennacherib had gained possession of Ashdod, the key to Egypt, he determined to complete the subjugation of Judah. He soon reduced all the cities to his power, except Libnah and Lachish, to which he laid siege, and Jerusalem, to which he gave a very haughty summons to surrender, by his general Rabshakeh. Though to human appearance all was lost, Hezekiah still relied on the promise of divine deliverance, which was soon accomplished. A report was spread abroad that Tirhakah (Tahraka), king of Cush,—(one of the greatest heroes of all antiquity, who ruled over, not only the Arabian and African, or Ethiopian Cush, but also over Egypt, and is said to have pushed his conquests as far as the Pillars of Hercules,)—was on his march through Arabia, to attack the Assyrian territories; and soon after, 185,000 men of Sennacherib's army died in one night. (see page 19,) Sennacherib now fled to Assyria, and was soon after assassinated by his own sons, in the temple of Nisroch at Nineveh. (2 Kings 18: 19. 2 Chr. 29: 32. Isa. 36: 37.) Hezekiah soon after fell sick, but received from the prophet Isaiah a divine promise of recovery, and of an addition of fifteen years to his life. In confirmation, the king requested a miracle; and, accordingly, the shadow of the style went back ten degrees on the dial. This event was the more important, as at that time there was no heir to the crown. It was recorded in the annals of the nation, and celebrated in the thanksgiving ode of Hezekiah; and, together with the miraculous deliverance from Sennacherib, not only cured the Hebrews of the idolatry introduced by Ahaz, and retained them for some time in their fidelity to Jehovah, but also excited the admiration of all the neighbouring people. Merodach-baladan, the son of Baladan, king of Babylon, sent an embassy to Hezekiah, to congratulate him, and make inquiry respecting this miracle. (2 Chron. 32: 24—33. 2 Kings 20: 1—13. Isa. 38: 1—22;—39: 1, 2.) On this occasion, Hezekiah received the melancholy prediction of the Babylonian captivity; and that, too, at a time when Babylon was an inconsiderable kingdom (262 of the Revolt, 713 B. C.), which was soon after subjugated by Assyria (295 of the Revolt), and when the people who were completely to fulfil this prediction were almost unknown. (2 Kings 20: 14—21. Isa. 39: 3—8, comp. 23: 13.)

13. Manasseh was twelve years old when he began to reign, and reigned fifty-five years, to 331 of the Revolt, and 644 B. C. He put an end to all good which his father, Hezekiah, had done. He upheld idolatry so strenuously, that no king of Judah had hitherto rebelled against Jehovah in so daring a manner. For this, he was defeated in a battle by the general of Esar-haddon, or Sardochæus, and carried a prisoner to Babylon. Thus began the fulfilment of the prophecy of Isaiah, (Isa. 39: 3—8,) which was afterwards accomplished by the Chaldeans. Manasseh, during his imprisonment, repented of his wickedness; and God permitted him to be restored to his throne. Undoubtedly, he remained tributary to the Assyrian monarch, and his territory was probably made to serve as a barrier between Assyria and Egypt. He now earnestly sought to repair the injuries which he had before occasioned. He abolished idolatry, he fortified the city of Zion, and endeavoured, as far as possible, to bring his weakened kingdom into a better state. (2 Kings 21: 1—18. 2 Chron. 23: 1—20.) His son Amon again introduced idolatry; when his courtiers assassinated him, in the second year of his reign, 333 of the Revolt, 642 B. C. The people put the regicides to death, and raised to the throne Josiah, the son of Amon, then eight years old. (2 Kings 21: 19—26. 2 Chron. 33: 21—25.)

14. Josiah reigned thirty-one years, to 364 of the Revolt, 611 B. C. While a minor, the affairs of government were administered by a regent; and idolatry, if not protected, was tolerated. But in his sixteenth year, he assumed the administration, and destroyed idolatry. In his eighteenth year, while repairing the temple, the manuscript of the book of the laws, given by Moses, was found; and its curses were read to the king. After this, the reformation was forwarded with still greater zeal; and it may truly be said, that Josiah endeavoured to render idolatry for ever an object of universal disgust and abhorrence. Josiah attempted to prevent Pharaoh-Necho from marching an army through his territories to attack Nabopolassar, king of Babylon, and was killed in the battle of Megiddo. (2 Kings 23: 29, 30. 2 Chron. 35: 20—27.) After the death of Josiah (611 B. C.), the kingdom of Judah hastened to ruin. The people raised to the throne Jehoahaz, the younger son of Josiah; but three months after, Necho returned to Jerusalem from the conquest of Phœnicia, and deposed him. Necho placed Eliakim, the elder son of Josiah, on the throne, to whom he gave the name of Jehoiakim. He also levied a contribution of one hundred talents of silver, and one talent of gold, and took the deposed king with him to Egypt. From the smallness of the contribution (£43,340), it may be seen how low the kingdom of Judah had sunk. (2 Kings 23: 31—35. 2 Chron. 36: 1—4.)

15. Jehoiakim, son of Josiah, was one of the worst kings that ever ruled over Judah. His reign continued eleven years, to 375 of the Revolt, 600 B. C. In the third year after the battle of Megiddo, Pharaoh-Necho undertook a second expedition

against Nabopolassar, also called Nebuchadnezzar I., who was at this time, as Berosus relates, aged and infirm. He therefore gave up a part of his army to his son, Nebuchadnezzar II., who defeated the Egyptian host at Carchemish (Circesium) on the Euphrates, and drove Necho out of Asia. The victorious prince marched directly to Jerusalem, which was then under the sovereignty of Egypt. After a short siege, Jehoiakim surrendered, and was again placed on the throne by the Babylonian prince. Nebuchadnezzar took away part of the furniture of the temple, and carried back with him to Babylon several young men, the sons of the principal Hebrew nobles, among whom were Daniel and his three friends, Hananiah, Mishael, and Azariah, to be employed in the service of his court, and at the same time to answer the purpose of hostages. With this year (606 B. C.) commences the Babylonian captivity, which, according to the prophecy of Jeremiah (Jer. 25: 1—14;—29: 10), was to endure seventy years; and thus the prediction announced to Hezekiah more than one hundred years before, by Isaiah, received a still farther accomplishment. (2 Kings 24: 1—7. 2 Chron. 26: 5—8. Dan. 1: 3—6. Isa. 39: 3—8.)

Three years after, Jehoiakim rebelled against Babylon, probably in reliance on assistance from Egypt; but Nebuchadnezzar came up against him, and carried him in chains to Babylon.

16. Jehoiachin, or Jeconiah, son of Jehoiakim, raised himself to the throne; but he retained it only three months. Though he surrendered to the Chaldeans who besieged Jerusalem, he was held a close prisoner; the treasury, and the golden utensils of the temple, were carried away to Babylon; and the soldiers, artificers, nobles, and men of wealth, with their wives, children, and servants, probably amounting to forty thousand souls, were led into captivity to the river Chebar (Chaboras) in Mesopotamia. Thus, only the lower class of citizens, and the country people, were left behind;—these cherished the hope of soon being able to shake off the Chaldee yoke; and the captives looked for a speedy return to their native land. Jeremiah reproved the delusions of the former, and Ezekiel those of the latter class; but their prophecies were not believed. Zedekiah, in the ninth year of his reign, renounced his allegiance to his powerful lord, and entered into an alliance with the king of Egypt, Pharaoh-hophra (Vaphres, or Apries), the eighth of the 26th Saitic dynasty; when the Chaldee army immediately laid siege to Jerusalem. The Egyptians came up to their relief; but when Nebuchadnezzar marched against them, they returned to Egypt, without hazarding a battle. The siege was then resumed, and the city taken, in the eleventh year of Zedekiah, the eighteenth of the Babylonian captivity, 387 of the the Revolt, 588 B. C. Zedekiah's sons were put to death in his presence, and then his own eyes were put out, and he was led in chains to Babylon. Thus was fulfilled the somewhat enigmatical prophecy of Ezekiel, that he should go

into that splendid city, and not see it. (Ezek. 17: 13—15. Jer. 37: 3—10. 2 Kings 24: 18—20;—25: 1—7. 2 Chr. 36: 11—17.) Soon after, Nebuzar-adan, the commander of the royal life-guard, came and took everything that was valuable out of the temple, set fire to it and to the city, and threw down the fortifications; put to death the principal inhabitants, and forced the rest to go into exile. (2 Kings 25: 8—21. 2 Chr. 36: 17—21. Jer. 52: 12 ff.)

The Hebrew, Gedaliah, was appointed governor of the country-people who still remained in Judea; but Ishmael, a prince of the royal family, murdered him, with all the Hebrews and Chaldees who were attached to him; when, four years after, the land was entirely bereaved of its inhabitants.

SECTION XIII.*

THE HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

The Kingdom of Israel, from its Establishment, in 975, to its Fall, in 722 B. C.

1. JEROBOAM, the first king of Israel, reigned twenty-two years, or till 954 B. C. His capital was Shechem (Napolose), forty miles north of Jerusalem. The constitutional changes which he introduced drove all those citizens who were displeased with his innovations of their fundamental laws, into Judea. The priests and Levites especially, all left Israel, and relinquished not only their tithes, but also their cities.† By this sacrifice, it is evident they preferred the worship of the true God to the peaceful enjoyment of their property. Nadan, the son of Jeroboam, succeeded to the throne; but, in the second year of his reign, he was put to death, with all his family, by Baasha, as Ahijah had predicted. (1 Kings 14: 7—10;—15: 25—30.) Baasha fixed his residence at Tirzah: he reigned twenty-four years. Because he did not reform the abuses of Jeroboam, the prophet Jehu declared to him, that God had determined to exterminate his family. (1 Kings 15: 33, 34;—16: 1—7.) Elah, his son, succeeded him; but, in the second year of his reign, he was murdered, with all his family, by Zimri, according to the prediction of Jehu. Zimri reigned seven days, when the army elected Omri, their general, king, and marched to Tirzah. Zimri offered no resistance, but fled to the harem, which he set on fire, and perished in the flames, B. C. 929.

2. The people then made Tibni king; but being unable to oppose Omri, the kingdom was divided in its allegiance, until the

* The Levites had forty-eight cities, with fields, pastures, and gardens, assigned them for their residence and support.

death of Tibni, about six years after, when Omri was generally acknowledged. Omri built Samaria, thirty-two miles north of Jerusalem, and made it his capital; and there all the succeeding kings of Israel resided. He reigned twelve years, and was succeeded by his son Ahab, the worst of all the Israelitish monarchs, and entirely under the influence of his idolatrous wife, Jezebel, a daughter of Ethbaal, king of Tyre. Jezebel maintained a multitude of priests and prophets of Baal, the god of the Syrians and Sidonians; and idolatry became the predominant religion; when, at last, the prophet Elijah pronounced the judgment of God upon Ahab and his house,—that during the reign of his son, his whole race should be exterminated. (1 Kings 16 : 29 ;—21 : 17.)]

3. Ahaziah was no better than his father Ahab. He fell from an apartment of his palace, and died in the second year of his reign. His brother Jehoram succeeded him, and reigned twelve years, from about 896 to 884 B. C. By the prophecies and miracles of Elijah, he had been brought to acknowledge Jehovah as his God and Sovereign; but as he suffered the golden calves to remain, and made no attempt to abolish idolatry, probably because he feared the power of his mother, Jezebel, who patronized these abominations, the kingdom was promised to Jehu, the commander-in-chief, by a disciple of Elisha. Jehu immediately executed the sentence pronounced against Ahab's house, by shooting Jehoram, and extirpating his whole family,—his mother, Jezebel, included, (2 Kings 3 ; 8 ; 9) B. C. 884.

4. Jehu reigned twenty-eight years. He entirely abolished idolatry, and put to death the idolatrous priests and prophets of Baal, that had been invited to a great festival. (2 King 10 : 18—28.) But the idolatry of Ahab and Jezebel was not annihilated by his coercive reformation. Many still practised it; but it was no longer upheld by the regal authority. For his services he received a divine promise that his son's sons should possess the throne for four generations. These, 1, Jehoahaz, reigned seventeen years; 2, Joash, seventeen years; Jeroboam II., forty-one years; and Zachariah, who was murdered by Shallum in the sixth month of his reign, 202 of the Revolt, 773 B. C.

5. During the reign of this family they were constantly at war with the Syrians of Damascus. They deprived Jehu of the whole territory east of the Jordan; and Benhadad III. obliged Jehoahaz and Joash to pay tribute, until the idolatrous generation became extinct, when Joash was able to hold him in check, and in the end to gain the preponderance over him; whilst Jeroboam II., the son of Joash, recovered all the conquests the Syrians had made in the previous reigns, and restored the kingdom to its ancient boundaries, as Jonah had predicted. (2 Kings 13; 14.) But as soon as Israel was freed from the

Syrians it was disturbed by domestic broils, and rapidly hastened to destruction.

6. For twelve years after the death of Jeroboam II. internal commotions prevailed. Kings were suddenly raised to the throne, and as suddenly removed; agreeably to the representation which Hosea, who prophesied at this time, gives of the state of the kingdom. Shallum, who murdered Zachariah, was in his turn put to death within one month, by his general, Menahem. Menahem reigned ten years, and died a natural death; but his reign was unfortunate. Pul, king of Assyria, made war against him; and he being unable to resist this powerful conqueror, he purchased peace by the payment of 1000 talents, or 3,000,000 shekels of silver,* and became tributary to him. As this sum was raised by a tax of fifty shekels a head on his military men, it appears that Menahem's army amounted to 60,000, and that, during the preceeding disputes, a military government had been established. (2 Kings 15: 16.) Pekakiah, the son of Menahem, succeeded him; but after a reign of two years, he was murdered by Pekah, the commander of his army, in the year of Azariah or Uzziah's death, 216 of the Revolt, 759 B. C. (2 Kings 15: 23. 2 Chron. 26: 3.)

7. Pekah formed an alliance with Rezin, the Syrian king of Damascus,† to invade Judah, (2 Kings 15: 37;—16: 5.) They were partly successful against Ahaz. They besieged him in Jerusalem; but not being able to take it, they wasted the country around, and withdrew. They returned the year following; and Ahaz, being unable to withstand them, sent the gold and silver of the temple and of the royal treasury, to obtain the assistance of Tiglath-pileser, king of Assyria, who came and took Damascus, slew Rezin, and carried his people captive to Ker, probably the river Cyrus in Iberia, which at the present day is called Kur by the Russians, and Kier by the Persians. (2 Kings 16: 9.) Pekah was murdered by Hosea, within two years after, in the third or fourth year of Ahaz; and as Hosea did not ascend the throne of Israel till the twelfth year of the same reign (2 Kings 17: 1), a state of anarchy must have continued for nine years, that is, from 235 to 244 of the Revolt, and from 740 to 731 B. C.

8. Hosea, or Hoshea, the last king of Israel, was a better ruler than most of his predecessors; but his kingdom was too much weakened by the late revolutions, to resist its powerful neighbours. Therefore, when Shalmanaser, king of Assyria,

* 1 Shekel	=	10 Troy dwts. at 5s. per oz.	=	0 2 6
60 Shekels, 1 Maneh	=	2 lbs. 6 oz.	=	7 10 0
50 Manehs, 1 Talent	=	125 lbs.	=	375 0 0
1000 Talents	=	125,000 lbs.	=	275,000 0 0

† The kingdom of Damascus was a Jewish province in the time of David and Solomon, when, towards the end of his reign, it declared itself independent. Its rulers were Rezin I., about 980; Benhadad I., about 900; Hazel, about 850; Benhadad II., about 830; and Rezin, the ally of Pekah, killed 742 B. C.

invaded him, he was obliged to become tributary. He afterwards imprudently attempted to shake off the yoke: he formed an alliance with So, king of Egypt, and imprisoned the Assyrian officer who was appointed to collect the tribute. Upon this, Shalmanaser laid siege to Samaria; and after three years he gained possession of it and destroyed it. During all this time the king of Egypt made no attempt to come to the assistance of Israel, as Isaiah had declared from the first, in language of strong reprehension against the alliance. (Isa. 30: 1—7.) Shalmanaser carried the principal inhabitants and soldiers to Halah (Chalac-hene), to the river Habor (Chaboras, and in Ezekiel, Chebar), and to Gozan on the east side of the Tigris, and to the cities of the Medes. On the other hand, colonists were brought to Samaria from Babylon, Cuthah, Ava, Hamath, and Sepharvaim, comprehending the modern provinces of Persis, Chusistan, and Suisiana, in Persia, to the eastward of the Tigris; 722, B. C.

The kingdom of Israel, or of the ten tribes, was destroyed in the 253d year of the Revolt from Rehoboam, or in 722 B. C.

SECTION XIV.*

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

First Period—to the time of Cadmus, about 519 B. C.

Geographical Outline.—Greece presents a large irregular peninsula, intersected by many chains of mountains, separating its different districts, and opposing natural impediments to general intercourse, and therefore to rapid civilization. Ancient Greece included that country which lay between the Adriatic and Ionian seas on the west, and the Ægean sea on the south-west. Its principal divisions were Peloponnesus, Thessaly, Græcia Proper, Macedonia, and Epirus; which were subdivided as follows:—

	Subdivisions.	Chief Cities.	Rivers and Mountains.
PELOPONNESUS	ARGOLIS.	Argos, Mycenæ, Epidaurus, Nauplia.	
	LACONIA	Sparta, Amyclæ, Sellasia.	River: Eurotas. Mountain: Taggatus.
	MESSENIA.	Messene, Ithome, Pylos (Navarin).	
	ELIS.	Olympia, Ellis, Cyllene.	Rivers: Alpheus, Peneus, Sellis.
	ACHAIA.	Sicyon, Corinth.	
	ARCADIA.	Mantineæ, Tegea, Orchomenus, Heræa, Psophis; subsequently Megalopolis, as a common capital.	Rivers: Alpheus, Erymanthus. Lake: Styx.
THESSALIA.	ESTIGEOTIS.	Gomphi, Azorus.	
	PELASGIOTIS.	Larissa, Gouni.	
	THESSALLOTIS.	Pharsalia,	
	PHTHIOTIS.	Pheræ.	
	MAGNESIA.	Magnesia.	Rivers: the Peneus, Apidanus. Mountains: Olympus; the chain of Cæta, Othrys, and Pindus to the south.

	Subdivisions.	Chief Cities.	Rivers and Mountains.
GRÆCIA PROPRIA.	ATTICA.	<i>Athens</i> , with the harbours, <i>Piræus</i> , <i>Phalerus</i> , and <i>Munychus</i> . Hamlets: <i>Marathon</i> , <i>Eleusis</i> , <i>Decalea</i> , &c. Rivers: <i>Ilissus</i> , <i>Cephissus</i> .	
	MEGARIS.	<i>Megara</i> .	
	BOEOTIA.	<i>Thebes</i> , <i>Platea</i> , <i>Tanagra</i> , <i>Thespiæ</i> , <i>Chæronea</i> , <i>Lebadea</i> , <i>Orchomenus</i> . Rivers: <i>Ismenus</i> , <i>Asopus</i> .	
	PHOCIS.	<i>Delphi</i> , <i>Crissa</i> , with the harbour of <i>Cirrhæ</i> , <i>Elatea</i> . River: <i>Cephissus</i> . Mountain: <i>Parnassus</i> .	
	LOCRIS.	<i>Naupactus</i> (<i>Lepanto</i>), <i>Amphissa</i> , <i>Opus</i> . Mountain pass: <i>Thermopylæ</i> .*	
	DORIS.		
MACEDONIA.	ÆTOLIA.	<i>Calydon</i> , <i>Thermus</i> . River: <i>Archelous</i> .	
	PEONIA.		
	PIERIA.		
	EMATHIA.	<i>Bereæ</i> , <i>Edessa</i> , <i>Pella</i> .	
	MYGDONIA.	<i>Thessalonica</i> (<i>Saloniki</i>).	
	AMPHAXITES.		
	CHALCIDICE.	<i>Apollonia</i> (<i>Polina</i>), <i>Olynthus</i> , <i>Stagira</i> .	
EPIRUS.	EDONICA.	<i>Amphipolus</i> (<i>Jemboli</i>), <i>Neapolis</i> , <i>Philippi</i> .	
	SINTICA.		
		Rivers: <i>Strymon</i> , <i>Axius</i> (<i>Vardar</i>), <i>Erigon</i> , <i>Haliacmon</i> .	
	ACARNANIA.	<i>Actium</i> , <i>Argos</i> .	
	THRESPROTIA.	<i>Buthrotum</i> , <i>Dodona</i> .	
	CHAONIA.		
	MOLOSSIS.	<i>Ambracia</i> . Rivers: <i>Acheron</i> , and <i>Cocythus</i> .	
ISLANDS— <i>Crete</i> . Cities: <i>Cydonia</i> , <i>Gortyna</i> , <i>Cnossus</i> . Mountain: <i>Ida</i> .			
Cyprus. Cities: <i>Salamis</i> , <i>Paphos</i> , <i>Citium</i> .			
SMALLER ISLANDS of the Coast— <i>Corcyra</i> , <i>Leucadia</i> , <i>Cephalonica</i> , <i>Ithaca</i> , <i>Zacynthus</i> , <i>Cythera</i> , <i>Ægina</i> , <i>Salamis</i> , <i>Eubœa</i> , <i>Cyclades</i> , and <i>Sporades</i> , &c.			

The Gulfs of Peloponnesus indent it in such a manner that it resembles a leaf, and from that of a mulberry it has acquired the name of the Morea.

1. Greece was originally inhabited by various tribes, two of which, the Pelasgi and Hellenes, both probably of Asiatic origin, claim our attention at a very early period. The Pelasgi were the first who acquired a supremacy over the aboriginal races, and according to their own traditions, they were then uncultivated savages. They received the first lessons of civilization from the Titans, a Phœnician or Egyptian colony, who settled in the country about the time of Moses. The Titans gave the Pelasgi the first ideas of religion; for they were a religious people. They taught the savages to worship the Phœnician gods, Saturn, Jupiter, Ceres, &c., who were nothing more than deified heroes; and by a progress of ideas not unnatural, this rude people confounded in after times their gods with the Titans who introduced them; and hence sprung the numberless fables respecting their gods and demi-gods.

2. The Titans seem also to have been a turbulent people; for they

* The celebrated pass of Thermopylæ is only sixty paces broad, and affords room but for a single carriage between Mount Orta and the Malian Gulf.

weakened themselves by incessant quarrels and hostile conflicts, and at length entirely extirpated each other. Inachus, the last of their chiefs, was regarded by the Pelasgi as the founder of the kingdom of Argos. His son Phoroneus built the city of Argos, about 1856 B. C.; and another son, Egialeus, built Sicyon, making it the seat of a new government. To the Pelasgi are attributed the building of those most ancient remains called Cyclopiæ.* From the Peloponnesus, the Pelasgi extended themselves northwards to Attica, Bœotia, and Thessaly, which they are said to have entered under their leaders Achæus, Phthius, and Pelasgus. In Thessaly they applied themselves to agriculture; and remained for a hundred and fifty successive years, about 1700—1500 B. C.

3. In the time of Oxyges, king of Thebes, happened the extensive inundation in which it is said he perished, along with many of his subjects, about 1796 B. C. This inundation goes by the name of the Deluge of Oxyges; but well-informed authors consider it to have been merely an extraordinary overflowing of the lake Copais in Bœotia, which overspread a part of the low country, while the rest continued to be inhabited.

4. From the death of Oxyges until the arrival of Cecrops, the leader of the second colony from Egypt, a period of about 200 years, there is no series of kings recorded, nor any connected history of that period. Cecrops landed in Attica, from Sais in Egypt, about 1582 B. C., and, connecting himself with the last king (Acteus) by marrying his daughter, succeeded on his death to the sovereignty. He built twelve cities, amongst others, Athens originally called after himself Cecropia, and was eminent both as a lawgiver and politician. He is said to have introduced the cultivation of the olive, of different kinds of grain, and the rearing and feeding of cattle; and to have instituted the rites of marriage and of burial. He also established the court of Areopagus at Athens. The number of its judges varied at different periods from nine to fifty-one. They were chosen from among the wisest and most respectable of the citizens; and, in the latest times, consisted principally of such as had filled the highest dignities. They held their meetings in the open air, and determined all causes during the night.

5. The Grecian history derives some authenticity at this period from the Chronicle of Paros, preserved among the Arundelian marbles at Oxford. The authority of this chronicle has been questioned; but on a review of the whole controversy, we judge the arguments for its authenticity to preponderate. It fixes the dates of the most remarkable events in the history of Greece, from

* They are usually composed of enormous rude masses piled upon one another, with small stones fitted in between the interstices to complete the work. Several of these stones are from ten to twelve feet in length, and of proportionate breadth and thickness. These buildings were no doubt erected as fortresses, from the interior contrivances to protract the defence after the enemy had conquered the outer wall. Colonel Leake's Travels in the Morea contain the best account of the Cyclopiæ remains at Tirgus, Argos, and Mycenæ.

the time of Cecrops down to the age of Alexander the Great, 1582—354 B.C.*

6. Cecrops died childless, and was succeeded by Cranaus, in whose time happened two remarkable events, recorded in the Chronicle of Paros; the judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly; and the deluge of Deucalion. [Hallirothius, the son of Neptune, had been put to death by Mars, for violating his daughter Alcippe; and to prevent a war, the cause was submitted to the Areopagus, which decreed that the revenge of Mars was justified by the outrage which he had sustained. Deucalion and his followers were at first located in Phocis, near Parnassus, from whence they were driven by a flood. This event is celebrated in antiquity as the deluge of Deucalion. He is confounded with Noah by the poets, and represented by them as the ancestor of the human race; and the other circumstances related only prove that the sacred writings were known to them, or else the tradition of the deluge, which they employed to embellish their narrative. The inundation which then happened was certainly nothing more than some similar occurrence to that in the time of Oxyges—probably an earthquake, which changed the course of the river Peneus.† That this inundation was only partial, is proved from the fact, that the succession of the kings of Argos, Athens, and Sicyon, that preceded the age of Deucalion is preserved, as well as the series of those who came after his time.]

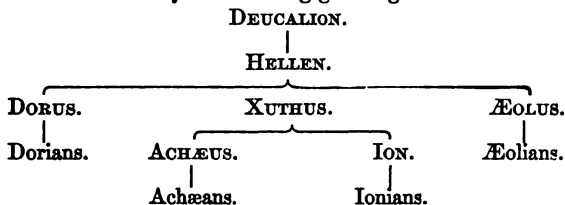
7. [The Chronicle of Paros records that Deucalion, after escaping from the flood, retired to Athens, where he sacrificed to Jupiter Phryxius. He then migrated into Thessaly, and drove out the Pelasgi from that territory, about 1529 B.C. where his tribe increased in numbers and power. This tribe is afterwards known as the Hellenes, from Hellen, the son of Deucalion. They descended from Thessaly, spreading themselves over Greece, and expelling the Pelasgi from almost every place. The latter tribe maintained their ground only in Arcadia and Dodona; whilst some of them migrated to Italy, to Crete, and other islands.‡

* The Arundelian marbles, in their perfect state, contained a chronological detail of the principal events of Greece during a period of 1318 years, beginning with Cecrops (1582 B.C.), and ending with the Archonship of Diognetus (264 B.C.); but the chronicle of the last 90 years is lost, so that the part remaining ends at the Archonship of Diotimus, 354 B.C. They were brought to England in 1629, and placed in the gardens belonging to Arundel House in London, where some of them were broken and effaced, and others taken away and used for ordinary building purposes.

† Those partial inundations were frequent in Greece. Xenophone numerates five; and Diodorus Siculus mentions a sixth, which happened after them.

‡ It has been generally admitted that the Pelasgians occupied Greece, and penetrated into central Italy, long before the establishment of the Hellenic colonies in Magna Græcia—that is, the southern portion of the Italian peninsula. Herodotus, Thucydides, and Strabo, state that the Pelasgians came originally from Thessaly into Greece; and as Thessaly was anciently a part of Thrace, Pinkerton (on the Origin of the Scythians and Goths) contends that the Pelasgians were Thracians—that is, Scythians or Goths. According to him, ancient Pelasgia included Macedonia, Epirus, and afterwards the country which in later times was called Hellas or Greece; and he follows the opinion of the majority of the learned, in holding that Pelasgi and Hellenes

8. [The Hellenic tribe subdivided into four principal branches, the Æolians, Ionians, Dorians, and Achæans, which continued afterwards to be distinguished and separated by many peculiarities of speech, customs, and political government. These four tribes, although they must not be considered as comprising all the slender ramifications of the nation, are derived by tradition from Deucalion's immediate posterity,—with whose personal history, therefore, the history of the tribes themselves and their migrations is interwoven. This derivation of the tribes will be better understood by the following genealogical table:—



9. Dorus followed his father Hellen into Esticeotis, from whence the tribe was driven, after the death of Dorus, by the Perrhæbi. It then spread over Macedonia and Crete. A part of the tribe returned, and settled in Tetrapolis Dorica, where they remained until they migrated into Peloponnesus, under the guidance of the Heraclidæ, about B.C. 1100. Xuthus, expelled by

were but different names for one and the same people. The Hellenes being a tribe that migrated from Thessaly at a later period, under their chieftain Hellen, and afterwards acquired the ascendancy over all the others.

Of all marks or proofs of the origin of nations, that of language is the most certain. The language and manners of the whole of Hellas, from Thrace to the Ionian sea, according to Pinkerton, were Thracian or Scythian. In Homer's time, the name of Barbarians was not applied to the Thracians, who appear to have spoken the same language with the Hellenes; and Diodorus Siculus states that the *Scythæ Hyperborei*, or most distant Scythians, used a form of speech akin to that of Athens and Delos—in other words, Pelasgic or Gothic. The similarity between the Greek and Gothic language is attested by Ovid:

Exercant illi sociæ commercia lingue,

Graisque quod Getico victa loquela sono est. (Tristia, lib. 5 : 10.)

Modern scholars and antiquaries have pronounced the Greek and Gothic to be merely dialects of the same original language, though some of them have fallen into the mistake of deriving the latter from the former. In corroboration of the same general view, Bibliander states, that in the German, which is a dialect of the Gothic, eight hundred out of two thousand radicals are common to the Greek and Latin as well as the German; and as to the Latin, every scholar knows that, originally, it was merely the Æolic dialect of the Greek. From these coincidences, and other circumstances, Pinkerton concludes that the Pelasgians, the ancestors of the Greeks, afterwards called Hellenes, from the leader of the last tribe that arrived, were originally settled in Macedonia and Thessaly; that they were Thracians, and that the Thracians were Scythians or Goths. See article "Pelasgi," Ency. Britan. 7th edition.

his brothers, migrated to Athens, where he married Creusa, daughter of Erechtheus, by whom he had Ion and Achæus. Ion and his tribe, driven out of Athens, settled in that part of Peloponnesus called Ægialus (a name which, by them, was converted into Ionia, and in later times exchanged for Achaia), preserved their footing in Laconia and Argos until the time of the Dorian migration. Æolus, in the time of his father, settled in Philistis, and became the founder of the Æolian tribe, which spread from thence over Western Greece, Acarnania, Ætolia, Phocis, Locris, Elis in the Peloponnesus, and likewise over the Western Islands.

10. Besides these original colonists, other colonies came into Greece at the same early period, from civilized countries—from Egypt, Phœnicia, and Mysia. The settlements of these strangers occurred probably between, B.C. 1600—1400. Danaus brought a colony from Egypt, and settled in Argos, about 1500. The colony of Cadmus, from Phœnicia, settled in Bœotia, about 1500; and the colony of Pelops, from Mysia, settled in Argos, about 1400, and afterwards acquired such paramount influence, as to give the name of their leader to the whole Peninsula.

11. When the tribes ceased to migrate, the first important step towards civilization was made. The next, when they discovered the necessity of a law of nations, and a confederation for their mutual protection against the Phœnicians, Carians, and Ægeans, who at first made the art of navigation subservient to piracy rather than commerce. The Amphictyonic league was formed for that purpose by Amphictyon, who reigned at Thermopylæ, B. C. 1522. He was the contemporary of Cranaus, the successor of Cecrops, and must have possessed extensive political views.—This council, from a league of twelve cities, became the representative assembly of the states of Greece, and had the most admirable political effect in uniting the nation and giving it a common interest. The states united in this general council were the Ionians; the Athenians; the Dorians; the Perrhæbians; the Bœotians; Magnesians; Achæans; Phthians; Malians; Dolopians; Ænians; Delphians; and Phocians. They met in spring and autumn; and on extraordinary occasions, at any time of the year, or even continued sitting all the year round. Two deputies attended from each state; and in their deliberations and resolutions, all were on a footing of equality.

12. Cadmus, about 1519 B.C., introduced alphabetic writing into Greece from Phœnicia.—The alphabet had then only sixteen letters, and the ancient Greeks had no more for many centuries afterwards; whilst the mode of writing (termed *Boustrophedon*, from its resemblance to the furrows described in ploughing a field) was alternately from left to right, and right to left. He also brought with him a knowledge of all the arts and sciences which were practised and cultivated in that early civilized country.—From this period, the Greeks made rapid advances in civilization.

SECTION XV.

REFLECTIONS ON THE EARLIEST OR FIRST PERIOD OF GRECIAN HISTORY.

1. [THE mythology of the Hellenes proves, beyond a doubt, that they were at first savages, like the Pelasgi, since they had to learn even the use of fire from Prometheus, the grandson of Titan; yet it is equally clear that they must, even at the earliest period, particularly from 1300—1200, when they had ceased to migrate, have made the first important steps towards the attainment of a certain degree of civilization. About the time of the Trojan war, they appear to have been still barbarians, though no longer savages.]

2. There were ~~many~~ circumstances that retarded the progress of the Greeks to refinement. The introduction of a national religion was best fitted to remove these obstacles. Receiving this new system of theology from strangers, and entertaining at first very confused ideas of it, they would naturally blend its doctrines and worship with the notions of religion which they formerly possessed; and hence we observe only partial coincidences of the Grecian with the Egyptian and Phœnician mythologies.—It has been a vain and preposterous labour of modern mythological writers, to attempt to trace all the fables of antiquity, and the various systems of Pagan theology, up to one common source.—The absurdity of this is best shown by comparing the different and most contradictory solutions of the same fable given by different mythologists; as, for example, by Lord Bacon and the Abbé Banier. Some authors, with much indiscretion, have attempted to deduce all the Pagan mythologies from the Holy Scriptures. Such researches are not only unprofitable, but positively mischievous.

3. Superstition, in the early periods, was a predominant characteristic of the Greeks. To this age, and to this character of the people, we refer the origin of the Grecian oracles, and the institution of the public games in honour of the gods. All barbarous nations have their augurs, their sorcerers, or their oracles—as the American Indians, the African negroes, the Laplanders, and formerly those among the Scottish Highlanders who pretended to the possession of the second sight. The desire of penetrating into futurity, and the superstition common to rude nations, gave rise to the oracles of Delphi, Dodona, Olympia, &c. The necessity of consulting these sanctuaries naturally led men to regard the oracles as the common property of the nation, to which every one should have access; and the resort of strangers to these oracles, on particular occasions, led to the celebration of a festival, and to public games.—The four solemn games of the Greeks, particularly termed *iesoi*, were the Olympic, the Pythian, the Nemean, and the Isthmian. They consisted

principally in contests of skill in all the athletic exercises, and the prizes were chiefly honorary marks of distinction.—The Olympic games were first celebrated at Olympia, in 1453 B. C., every fiftieth month, or the second month after the completion of four years.*—Archbishop Potter, in his *Archæologia Græca*, fully details their particular nature.—These games had excellent political effects, in promoting national union, in diffusing the love of glory, and training the youth to martial exercises. They cherished at once a heroic and a superstitious spirit, which led to the formation of extraordinary and hazardous enterprises. They also promoted the diffusion of knowledge, arts, sciences, and literature, by the trials of skill, which took place on these occasions, in poetry, history, and music; and it is chiefly to these latter exercises of genius that we must attribute the eminence of the Greeks in those sciences above all the nations of antiquity.

4. [It is deserving of notice, that whatever gods the Greeks adopted, no separate order of priesthood was established among them, still less any caste laying claim to the exclusive possession of knowledge. Several traces, nevertheless, make it probable that many of the most ancient sanctuaries were settlements of Egyptian, Phœnician, or other priests, who imported with them their own peculiar forms of worship. And notwithstanding this worship consisted merely of outward ceremonies, many ideas and institutions which were attached to it became, in this manner, the common property of the nation.]

5. [It happened with Greece, as with other countries, that civilization grew up under the shelter of the sanctuary, where strangers met in peace and conversed on their common interests. The ancient minstrels, Orpheus, Linus, &c., also contributed to the spread of civilization, in allaying the passion for revenge, and with it the perpetual state of warfare which had hitherto distracted the country.]

6. [The chivalrous spirit of the nation was gradually aroused, and developed the first bloom of its youthful vigour in the heroic ages. An affection for extraordinary undertakings was excited, and conducted the chieftains not only individually, but also in confederate bodies, beyond the limits of their own country. Thus, everything was ripe for some great national undertaking of all the combined Hellenic nations; and that object was attained in the war against Troy. The important result of that expedition was the kindling of one common national spirit, which, in spite of dissensions and feuds, was never wholly extinguished; and from that time the Hellenes always looked upon themselves as but one people.]

* The Greeks did not begin to compute the time by Olympiads until 776 A. C., 29 years before the Babylonian era of Nabonassar, and 149 years before the building of Rome.

SECTION XVI.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

Second Period.—The Argonautic Expedition—Wars of Thebes and of Troy. 1225—1184, B.C.

1. THE history of Greece, for a period of 300 years preceding the Trojan war, is intermixed with fables ; but contains, at the same time, many facts entitled to credit as authentic. Erectheus, or Erichonius, either a Greek who had visited Egypt, or the leader of a new Egyptian colony, cultivated the plains of Eleusis, and instituted, in honour of Ceres, the Eleusinian mysteries,* in imitation of the Egyptian games of Isis. These mysteries were of a religious and moral nature, conveying the doctrines of the unity of God, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. Cicero speaks of them with high encomium. But the ceremonies connected with them were childish and ridiculous. They were celebrated in the autumn of every fifth year at Eleusis.

2. Theseus laid the foundation of the grandeur of Attica, by uniting its twelve detached states or cities, which before were governed by their own magistrates and laws. He gave them a common constitution (1257 B. C.), abolished the separate magistracies, and, in conjunction with the principal men of each state, framed a new code of laws. [Erectheus had divided the citizens into four classes ; but Theseus reduced them to three—the nobles, the artisans, and the labourers. On the nobles he conferred the sole regulation of all that regarded religion, the administration of justice and public polity, which had the effect of keeping the people for ever embroiled in civil commotions, in their endeavour to restrain the pretensions of the nobles. Having the priests at all times under their influence, the nobles assumed to themselves a divine origin, the better to support their authority, and instituted religious rites in honour of their pretended divine progenitors ; and if they did not prevail so far as to pass with their contemporaries for the offspring of the gods, it is no wonder that succeeding ages should have been led to entertain that idea of them, when supported by the ceremonies of religion. In this manner, Castor, Pollux, Hercules, &c., came to be deified.]

3. The first great enterprise of the Greeks was the Argonautic expedition to Colchis, under the command of Jason, a Thessalian prince, 1263 B. C. (Usher), or 937 B. C. (Sir Isaac Newton). Castor, Pollux, Orpheus, Hercules, Peleus, and Laertes, were also subordinate leaders. This is supposed to have been both a military and mercantile adventure, and was singularly bold for the times in which it was undertaken. The object was to open

* For a full account of these mysteries, see Cumberland's Observer, No. 115.

the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to secure some establishments upon its Asiatic coasts. For these purposes, a fleet and troops were necessary. The armament consisted of many ships, of which Argo, the largest, was equal to the size of a modern vessel of 200 tons burden. The astronomer Chiron directed the plan of the voyage, and formed, for the use of the mariners, a scheme of the constellations, fixing with accuracy the solstitial and equinoctial points. Sir Isaac Newton has founded his emendation of the ancient chronology on a calculation of the regular precession of the equinoxes from this period to the present, as well as on an estimate of the medium length of human generations.

4. The state of the military art at this time in Greece may be estimated from an account of the sieges of Thebes and of Troy.

In these enterprises, the arts of attack and defence were very rude and imperfect. The siege was entirely of the nature of blockade, and therefore necessarily of long duration.—A dispute for the alternate sovereignty of Thebes between the brothers Eteocles and Polynices, the sons of Œdipus, gave rise to the war which, after a long contest, was terminated by single combat, in which both were killed—an issue for the quarrels of princes which the humane reader of history will often find reason to wish had been more frequently resorted to.*

5. Some years after, the sons of the commanders slain in this war renewed the quarrel of their fathers, and occasioned what was called the war of the *Epigonoï*—that is, the descendants or sons of the former—in which the city of Thebes was entirely destroyed by the Argives, 1215 B. C. Upon this subject Homer is said to have written a poem, now lost, equal to the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*.

6. The Trojan war was undertaken about thirty-five years after the Argonautic expedition, the detail of which rests chiefly on the authority of Homer, and ought not, in spite of modern scepticism, to be refused, in its principal facts, the credit of a true history. The immediate cause of the war was the elopement of Helen, the wife of Menelaus, king of Sparta, with Paris, the son of Priam, king of Troy. The injured husband applied to the Grecian princes for assistance, when a confederate army was raised, and placed under the command of Agamemnon, the brother of Menelaus. It is however probable, that a previous animosity had subsisted between the Greeks and Trojans, otherwise a personal injury of that nature would not have been so readily espoused by all the princes of Greece. Ten years is said to have been spent in preparing for this war. Troy at that time was a considerable state, extending from the Isle of Tenedos to

* Eteocles and Polynices were bequeathed the joint sovereignty of Thebes; but instead of dividing the kingdom, they agreed to govern it year after year alternately. Eteocles, at the expiration of his term, refusing to resign, Polynices solicited the aid of Adrastus, king of Argos, and other princes, to assist him; but his brother having the support of the Thebans, was able to resist their united forces.

Upper Phrygia, and having alliances with many of the princes of Lesser Asia. The city of Troy is supposed to have been about four or five miles from the shore, at the foot of that ridge of mountains which goes under the name of Ida. The Grecian mode of warfare was to ravage and plunder the country—thus cutting off the sources of supply,—and attacking the Trojans whenever they made a sally for the purpose of foraging, or attempted to force their fortified camps. After a blockade of ten years, Troy was taken, either by storm or surprise, 1184 B. C. (Usher), or 904 B. C. (Sir I. Newton), and, being set on fire in the night, was burned to the ground: not a vestige of its ruins existing at the present day. The miserable Trojans perished either in the flames or by the sword of the Greeks, and their empire and name were extinguished for ever. The Greeks, about eighty years after, settled a colony near the spot; and the rest of the kingdom was occupied by the Lydians.

7. Military expeditions at this time were carried on only in the spring and summer.—In a tedious siege, the winter was a season of armistice.—The science of military tactics was then utterly unknown, every battle being a multitude of single combats.—The soldier had no pay but his share of the booty, divided by the chiefs.—The weapons of war were the sword, the bow, the javelin, the club, the hatchet, and the sling. A helmet of brass, an enormous shield (made of thin metal, and covered with the hide of an animal), a cuirass, and buskins, were the weapons of defence.

SECTION XVII.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

Second Period—Establishment of the Greek Colonies.

1. ABOUT eighty years after the taking of Troy, began the war of the Heracidae. Amphitryon, the grandson of Perseus, the founder of Mycenæ, having involuntarily killed his uncle and father-in-law, Electryon, the successor of Perseus, he was obliged to fly his country, while the government was seized by his uncle Sthenelus, the brother of Electryon. By this usurpation, Hercules, the son of Amphitryon, was excluded from the government, and banished with all his family. His descendants, Cresphontes and Aristodemus, after the period of a century, returned to Peloponnesus, and, subduing all their enemies, took possession of the states of Mycenæ, Argos, and Lacedæmon. Cresphontes seized Mycenæ and Argos; and the two sons of Aristodemus, Eurysthenes and Procles, divided Lacedæmon.

2. A long period of civil war and bloodshed succeeded; and Greece, divided among a number of petty tyrants, who maintained a constant war with their neighbours, suffered equally the miseries of oppression and anarchy, and was again thrown back

into barbarism. This state of society at last became insupportable, and the very name of king became odious.

The Heraclidæ, in their war against the Athenians, were assured of their success by the oracle, provided they did not kill Codrus, then king of Athens. But he, having become acquainted with this condition, showed a singular example of patriotism, in devoting himself to death for his country—he disguised himself like a peasant, and purposely quarrelling with a soldier of the hostile army, procured the death he wished. Medon and Nileus, the sons of Codrus, disputed the succession to the crown; but the Athenians, weary of monarchy, determined to make the experiment of a popular constitution; and they elected Medon chief magistrate for life, with the title of Archon, or the commander. This is the commencement of the Athenian republic, about 1068 B. C.

3. It was at this time that the Greeks began to colonise. The oppression which they suffered at home forced many of them to abandon their country, and seek refuge in other lands.—A large body of Æolians, from Peloponnesus, founded twelve cities on the opposite coast of Lesser Asia, of which Smyrna was the most considerable; and Mitylene, in the island of Lesbos. Nileus, disappointed at Athens, also carried over into Asia a large body of the disaffected Athenians, along with some Ionian exiles, and settled on the southern coast of Lydia, and the northern shore of Caria; which, together with the islands of Samos and Chios, took from them the name of Ionia. There they built Ephesus, Colophon, Calzomene, and other towns, on the mainland; and in the islands, Samos and Chios. The Dorians sent off colonies to Italy and Sicily, founding, in the former, Tarentum and Locri, and in the latter, Syracuse and Agrigentum. These again, at a later period, colonised the islands of Crete, Rhodes, and Cos, and founded the cities of Halicarnassus and Cnidus in Asia. The shores of the Propontis, the Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotus, were likewise covered with Grecian settlements. The mother-country considered its colonies as entitled to great favour and assistance, but still as emancipated children.—These speedily attained to eminence and splendour, rivalling and surpassing their parent states; and the example of their prosperity, which was attributed to the freedom of their governments, incited the states of Greece, oppressed by a number of petty despots, to put an end to the regal government and try the experiment of a popular constitution. Athens and Thebes gave the first examples, which were soon followed by all the rest.

4. These infant republics demanded new laws; and it was necessary that some enlightened citizens should arise, who had discernment to perceive what system of legislation was most adapted to the character of his native state; who had abilities to compile such a system, and sufficient authority with his countrymen to recommend and enforce it. Such men were the Spartan *Lycurgus* and the Athenian *Solon*.

SECTION XVIII.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

*Second Period—The Republic of Sparta.**

1. THE origin of this political system has given rise to much ingenious disquisition among the moderns, and affords a remarkable instance of the passion for systematizing. It is a prevailing propensity with modern philosophers to reduce everything to general principles. Man, say they, is always the same animal; and, when placed in similar situations, will always exhibit a similar appearance. His manners, his improvements, the government and laws under which he lives, arise necessarily from the situation in which we find him; and all is the result of a few general laws of nature, which operate universally on the human species. But in the ardour of this passion for generalising, these philosophers often forget that it is the knowledge of facts which can alone lead to the discovery of general laws—a knowledge not limited to the history of a single age or nation, but extended to that of the whole species in every age and climate. Antecedently to such knowledge, all historical system is mere romance.

2. Of this nature is a late theory of the constitution of Sparta, first started by Mr Brown, in his *Essay on Civil Liberty*; and from him adopted by later writers. It thus accounts for the origin of the Spartan constitution:—"The army of the Heracleidæ, when they came to recover the dominion of their ancestors, was composed of Dorians from Thessaly, the most barbarous of all the Greek tribes. The Achæans, the ancient inhabitants of Laconia, were compelled to seek new habitations, while the barbarians of Thessaly took possession of their country. Of all the nations which are the subject of historical record, this people bore the nearest resemblance to the rude Americans. An American tribe where a chief presides, where the council of the aged deliberate, and the assembly of the people give their voice, is on the eve of such a political establishment as the Spartan constitution." The Dorians, or Thessalians, settled in Lacedæmon, manifested, it is said, the same manners with all other nations in a barbarous state. Lycurgus did no more than arrest them in that state, by forming their usages into laws. He checked them at once in the first stage of their improvement. "He put forth a bold hand to that spring which is in society, and stopped its motion."

3. This theory, however ingenious, is confuted by facts. All ancient authors agree, that Lycurgus operated a total change on the Spartan manners and on the constitution of his country;

* The government of Sparta was only nominally a republic, as it will be seen that the representatives in the assemblies of the people had no power to propose measures, but only to reject those offered to them.

while the moderns have discovered that he made no change on either. The most striking features of the manners and constitution of Sparta have not the smallest resemblance to those of any rude nations with which we are acquainted. The communion of slaves and of many other species of property, the right of the state in the children of all the citizens, their common education, the public tables, the equal division of lands, the oath of government between the kings and people, have no parallel in the history of any barbarous nations.

4. The real history of Sparta and its constitution is therefore not to be found in modern theory, but in the writings of the Greek historians, and these are our sole authorities worthy of credit.—The Achæans at first were governed by princes of the house of Perseus; but after Menelaus's accession to the throne, in virtue of his wife, by princes of the house of Pelops. When the latter had been expelled, after the return of the Heraclidæ, Sparta was divided between the two sons of Aristodemus, Eurysthenes and Procles, who jointly reigned; and this double monarchy, transmitted to the descendants of each, continued in the separate branches for near 900 years. A radical principle of disunion, and consequent anarchy, made the want of constitutional laws be severely felt. Lycurgus, brother of Polydectes, one of the kings of Sparta, a man distinguished alike by his abilities and virtues, was appointed guardian of his nephew, Charilaus, with the important duty of reforming and new-modelling the constitution of his country, 884 B. C.

5. Lycurgus instituted a senate, to consist of twenty-eight members, none of whom could be less than sixty years old, who were to be chosen by the people for life, and were to constitute the king's council in public affairs; as well as to preserve a just balance between the power of the king and that of the people. There was also a popular assembly, at which none but Spartans could assist; but their privileges extended no farther than to approve or reject the measures proposed to them by the kings and the senate: on the other hand, no judgment of the senate was effectual without the sanction of the people. The two kings presided in the senate, and had a double suffrage: they were the generals of the republic; but in other respects, their power was extremely limited. They could plan no enterprise without the consent of a council of the citizens, whose duty it was to watch over their measures.

6. Lycurgus bent his attention most particularly to the regulation of manners; and one great principle pervaded his whole system—Luxury is the bane of society.

He divided the territory of the republic into 39,000 equal portions, giving 9,000 portions to the Spartans, and 30,000 to the Lacedæmonians, with permission to dispose of those portions by entail or gift, but not by sale.

He substituted iron money for gold and silver, prohibited the

practice of commerce, abolished all useless arts, and allowed even those necessary to life to be practised only by the slaves.

The whole citizens made their principal repast at the public tables. The meals were coarse and parsimonious: the conversation was fitted to improve the youth in virtue and cultivate the patriotic spirit.

The Spartan education rejected all embellishments of the understanding. It nourished only the severer virtues. It taught the duties of religion, obedience to the laws, respect for parents, reverence for old age, inflexible honour, undaunted courage, contempt of danger and of death;—above all, the love of glory and of their country.

7. But the general excellence of the institutions of Lycurgus was impaired by many blemishes. The manners of the Lacedæmonian women were shamefully loose, and they were the reproach of all Greece for their immodesty. They frequented the baths, and fought naked in the Palæstra promiscuously with the men. Theft was a part of Spartan education. Paternal or maternal tenderness seemed perfectly unknown among this ferocious people, and the youth were taught to subdue the feelings of humanity. The slaves, or Helots, the country population of Peloponnesus, whom they had reduced to servitude, were treated with the most barbarous rigour, and often massacred for sport. The institutions of Lycurgus had no other end than to form a nation of soldiers. [It is therefore not remarkable that the Spartans should appear so soon after as conquerors. Indeed, it could no longer be expected that any durable peace should exist in Greece, while the centre of the country was occupied by a military commonwealth whose citizens were trained for war, and all the occupations of household life and of agriculture left to the care of slaves.]

8. A material change in the constitution of Sparta was made about 130 years after the death of Lycurgus, by the creation of a new magistracy, under the name of the *Ephori*. They were five in number, and elected annually by the people. They enjoyed a similar but higher power than that of the tribunes of the people of Rome. They were instituted at first by the kings, to control the influence of the senate; but they soon acquired a power paramount to that of the kings and senate. They even assumed the functions of deposing and putting the kings to death. The kings, on the other hand, plotted against the Ephori, and often caused them to be murdered. These contentions silently undermined the political fabric, and ultimately caused its destruction.

SECTION XIX.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

Second Period—The Republic of Athens, from 1068 to 500 B. C.

1. ON the abolition of the regal office at Athens, the change of the constitution was more nominal than real. The archonship was a perpetual and hereditary magistracy, in the family of Codrus, and in this form became equally grievous as that which had preceded it, thirteen of whom ruled from 1068 to 752 B. C. The first was Medon; the last, Alcmaeon. The office then became decennial, seven of whom succeeded between 752—682. These likewise were taken from the family of Codrus; but even this limited term was found opposed to the growing spirit of democracy, and from 682 nine archons were annually elected, but so arranged that the prerogatives of the former kings and the preceding archons were divided among the three first, the other six filling the office of judges in the civil courts, whilst the whole number formed the supreme council of state. As these archons were only chosen from noble families, an oppressive aristocracy arose, like that of the patricians at Rome after the expulsion of the kings. Under all these changes, the state was convulsed, and the condition of the people miserable.

2. Draco, elevated to the archonship in 622, projected a reform in the constitution of his country, and thought to repress disorders by the extreme severity of penal laws. But his talents were unequal to the task he had undertaken.

3. Solon, an illustrious Athenian, of the race of Codrus, was chosen archon in 594, and intrusted with the care of framing for his country a new form of government, and a new system of laws. He possessed extensive knowledge, but wanted that intrepidity of mind which is necessary to the character of a great statesman. His disposition was mild and temporising; and, without attempting to reform the manners of his countrymen, he accommodated his system to their prevailing habits and passions.

4. The people claimed the sovereign power, and they received it: the rich demanded offices and dignities; the system of Solon accommodated them to the utmost of their wishes. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the measure of their wealth. To the three first, the richer citizens, belonged all the offices and dignities of the commonwealth. The fourth, the poorer class, more numerous than all the other three, had an equal right of suffrage with them in the public assembly, where all laws were framed, and measures of state decreed. Consequently the weight of the latter decided every question, and gave them the chief power in the state.

5. To regulate in some degree the proceedings of those assemblies, and balance the weight of the popular interest, Solon

instituted a senate of 400 members (afterwards enlarged to 500 and 600), who were elected by ballot, with whom it was necessary that every measure should originate, before it became the subject of discussion in the assembly of the people.

6. To the court of Areopagus he committed the guardianship of the laws, and the power of enforcing them, with the supreme administration of justice, and the prerogative of amending or rescinding the measures that had been approved of by the commons. To this tribunal belonged likewise the custody of the treasures of the state, the care of religion, and a tutorial power over all the youth of the republic. The number of its judges was various at different periods, and the most immaculate purity of character was essential to that high office. They were chosen from among the most respectable of the citizens, and generally such as had discharged the duties of archon.

7. The authority of the senate and Areopagus imposed some check on the popular assemblies; but as these possessed the ultimate right of decision, it was always in the power of ambitious demagogues to sway them to the worst of purposes, and to render useless the regulations of the wisest legislator that ever lived. Continual factions divided the people, and corruption pervaded every department of the state. The public measures, the result of the interested schemes of individuals, were often equally absurd as they were profligate. Athens often saw her best patriots, the wisest and most virtuous of her citizens, shamefully sacrificed to the most depraved and most abandoned.

8. The particular laws of the Athenian state were more deserving of encomium than its form of government. The laws relating to debtors were mild and equitable: imprisonment for debt was prohibited; but every debtor was deprived of his vote in the public assembly until the debt was paid. This disfranchisement extended also to the heir. The laws regulating the treatment of slaves were equally mild and humane. The slave might purchase his freedom: he might marry a free woman; and their children had all the rights of citizens. But the vassalage of women, or their absolute subjection to the control of their nearest relations, approached too near to a state of servitude. The proposer of a law found, on experience, impolitic, was liable to punishment—an enactment apparently rigorous, but probably necessary in a popular government.

9. One most iniquitous and absurd peculiarity of the Athenian, and some other governments of Greece, was the practice of the *Ostracism*, a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down, upon a shell, the name of the person in his opinion most obnoxious to censure; and he who was thus marked out by the greatest number of voices, though unimpeached of any crime, was banished for ten years from his country. This barbarous and disgraceful institution, ever capable of the greatest abuse, and generally subservient to the worst of purposes, has stained

the character of Athens with many flagrant instances of public ingratitude.

10. The manners of the Athenians formed the most striking contrast to those of the Lacedæmonians. The arts were, at Athens, in the highest esteem: the Lacedæmonians despised the arts, and all who cultivated them. At Athens, peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyment of life the aim of all its subjects. Sparta was entirely a military establishment: her subjects, when unengaged in war, were totally unoccupied. Luxury was the character of the Athenian, as frugality of the Spartan. They were equally jealous of their liberty, because liberty was equally necessary to each, for the enjoyment of his favourite scheme of life; and in the best times of both republics, they were equally brave in war. The courage of the Spartan sprung from a fostered hardihood, and constitutional ferocity; that of the Athenian from the principle of honour.

11. The Spartan government had acquired solidity, while all the rest of Greece was yet unsettled and torn by domestic dissensions.—While the power of Sparta was thus high among the states of the Peloponnesus, Athens, a prey to faction and civil disorder, surrendered her liberties to Pisistratus, a relation of Solon, a man of great talents, and highly popular, 560 B. C. Solon attempted to revive the patriotic spirit, but he met with no support; and the aged lawgiver, unable to brook the degradation of his country, withdrew from it, and died in voluntary exile. [Pisistratus, after various turns of fortune, established himself firmly in the sovereignty, exercised a splendid and munificent dominion, completely gained the affections of the people, and transmitted a peaceable crown to his sons Hipparchus and Hippias, 528 B. C. Pisistratus was a liberal promoter of literature. He patronized Simonides and other contemporary poets; and he conferred a memorable service on his country and on the world, by causing to be collected the hitherto scattered fragments of the poems of Homer.

12. The brothers ruled conjointly until 514, when Hipparchus was murdered by Hermodias and Aristogiton, in revenge for having first seduced, and then exposed, the sister of Hermodias. The cruelty with which Hippias punished all whom he suspected of having had a share in his brother's death alienated the affections of the people, who solicited and obtained the aid of the Spartans.] After a brief struggle, Hippias was driven from Athens in 510, and fled to the Persians, of whom he solicited aid to replace him in the sovereignty. Darius, the son of Hyastaspes, meditated at this time the conquest of Greece. Hippias took advantage of the views of an enemy against his native country, and Greece became involved in a war with Persia.

SECTION XX.*

THE HISTORY OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE,

*From the time of Cyrus to the Conquest by Alexander the Great,
560—330 B. C.*

1. [THE early history of Persia (the Elam of Scripture) is lost in remote antiquity. Until the time of Cyrus, the Persians were wholly, or for the most part, a nomade people, inhabiting the mountainous provinces to the east of the Tigris and the Persian Gulf, including the modern Chosistan, Fars, and the regions towards the Indus. The Persians were divided into ten clans—three of nobles, or warriors, three of husbandmen, and four of shepherds—the Pasargadæ being the noblest, or ruling clan. The Persian principalities were probably annexed to Media in the reign of Phraortes; and, from the description of the prophet Ezekiel, the inhabitants had been treated with great severity by their conquerors. (Ezek. 32: 24.)

2. Cyrus the Great was the son of Cambyses, a prince of Persia, and Mandane, a daughter of Astyages, king of Media. He was born in 599 B. C.; and, although his history was written by Herodotus, Ctesias, and Xenophon, within two centuries posterior to his time, yet the accounts given are so contradictory, that it is impossible to reconcile them. When the Babylonians and Lydians entered into an alliance to dismember Media, Cyrus came, in the fortieth year of his age, to the assistance of his uncle, Cyaxarxes II., with 30,000 well-disciplined Persians, and obtained the command of the whole Median army. He defeated and killed Neriglissar, king of Babylon, in 555. He then carried the war into the countries beyond the river Halys; subdued Cappadocia; marched against Croesus, king of Lydia; defeated him; took Sardis, his capital; and made him prisoner, in 548. Having reduced almost all Asia, he repassed the Euphrates, and turned his arms against the Assyrians, whom he defeated. He then laid siege to Babylon, and turned the course of the Euphrates, which ran through the city, on the night of a great festival; when his army entered the city by the channel of the river, from above and below at the same time, and proceeded at once to the royal palace, which they entered, and put Belshazzar and his nobles to death, together with all who were met with in the streets, and terminated the Chaldee-Babylonian empire, 538.

3. Cyaxares II. reigned thirty years over Media, and two years over Babylon, and was succeeded by Cyrus, who had married his only daughter, 536. In the first year of his reign, Cyrus gave permission to all the Jews, without exception, to return to Judea, and rebuild the temple at Jerusalem. He delivered to the returning exiles five thousand four hundred sacred vessels of gold and silver, which Nebuchadnezzar II. had carried away

from Jerusalem to Babylon. He also prescribed the size of the temple, and directed the expense of its erection to be defrayed from the royal treasury. (Ezra 1: 1—11;—6: 2—5.) Cyrus afterwards subdued Egypt. He resided during the seven cool months of the year at Babylon; two months, in the spring, at Shushan, or Susa; and during three months of the hottest weather, at Ecbatan, in Media;—a practice which was continued by his successors. Xenophon states that he died in the seventh year of his sole reign, while on a journey to Persia, and was interred at Pasargada (probably Persepolis), in a small tomb, which is supposed to be the same that was discovered by Niebur among the ruins of Persepolis. Herodotus, on the contrary, affirms that he was slain in a battle against the Massagetæ. On account of his justice and kindness to his subjects, he was honoured during his life, and after his death, with the title of *Father of his people*.

4. Cambyes succeeded his father Cyrus in 529, and was distinguished only as a tyrant and a madman. He caused his younger brother Smerdis, governor of Bactria, to be secretly put to death, because he dreamed that he saw him seated on the throne. In the fifth year of his reign, he invaded and conquered Egypt, treating the inhabitants with the greatest cruelty, particularly the priests. He caused the magnificent temple at Thebes to be burned; and, at the celebration of the festival of Apis at Memphis, he stabbed the sacred ox with his poniard, ordered the priests to be scourged, and massacred all the people who assisted at the sacrifice. He intended to subdue Carthage, but was obliged to relinquish his designs, as the Phœnicians refused to employ their shipping against their ancient colony. He then directed 50,000 men from Thebes to lay waste Oasis Magna in the Libian desert, where the oracle of Jupiter Ammon was situated. But the army was overwhelmed in the sand raised by a hurricane. Meanwhile, he proceeded with the remainder of his army towards Ethiopia; but his army was forced to return, having suffered so much from the want of provisions, that every tenth man was slain to furnish food for the rest. In returning from Egypt, he was officially informed of the usurpation of the throne by his brother Smerdis, when he assured his generals that he had previously caused him to be put to death, which they disbelieved, supposing it to be feigned out of hatred to his brother. Cambyes died soon after, of a wound he received from his sword in mounting his horse, 522.

5. The pretended Smerdis, a brother of the Median Magus or high-priest, retained the throne seven months, when the imposture was discovered, and the usurper put to death. Darius Hystaspes was then raised to the throne, and is represented to have been a mild and benevolent ruler. He strengthened his alliance with the family of Cyrus by marrying two of his daughters, one of whom, Atossa, till that time, had remained

unmarried; and also a granddaughter, the daughter of his son Smerdis. Darius divided the empire into twenty satrapies, and imposed a regular tax upon the conquered provinces, which till then had only given occasional subsidies. But to conciliate the Persians, he exempted them from taxation. The Babylonians, unwilling to submit to a foreign yoke, attempted to establish their independence. Darius marched against them, and encircled Babylon, when the besieged, the better to enable them to hold out, put to death all the females of the city, except one in each family, to act as a servant. After a twenty-one months' siege, the city was taken by stratagem; 3000 of the principal citizens were crucified, the 200 brazen gates were carried away, and a part of the walls thrown down. The remainder of the reign of Darius was spent in unceasing wars. He made the Indus the eastern boundary of his empire, and then invaded Scythia with an army of 700,000 men, which, advancing beyond its supplies, was almost entirely destroyed in the retreat. He next turned his arms against the Ionians,* who had revolted, and, with the assistance of the Athenians and Etrurians, took and burned Sardis, the capital of Lydia. After a seven years' war, Miletus was taken, and its inhabitants put to the sword; when the Ionians were forced to submit, together with all the islands in the Ægean Sea. The Persians then spread devastation through the towns and country, to the shores of the Hellespont, 494.

6. Two years after, Darius determined to be avenged of the Athenians for the aid given by them to their Asiatic brethren in the late insurrection. He gave the command of a considerable naval and military force to his son-in-law, Mardonius, who crossed the Hellespont, and traversed Thrace and Macedon as a conqueror; but his fleet of 300 ships was wrecked in a storm while doubling mount Athos, and his army was soon after attacked by the Thracians, which obliged Mardonius to return, 493. A second expedition was sent to Greece, under the command of Datis and Artaphernes, which landed in Eubœa, and poured down with impetuosity on Attica. The Athenians met them on the plain of Marathon, a small village near the coast, within ten miles of Athens, and, headed by Miltiades, defeated them with prodigious slaughter, September 29, 490 B. C. The Athenian army amounted to about 10,000 men; the army of the Persians consisted of 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. The loss of the Persians in this battle was 6,300, and among these the ignoble Hippias, who had eagerly prompted the expedition, and whose criminal ambition would have sacrificed and enslaved his country (see page 84). The Athenians, in this day of glory, lost only

* The Ionians, when driven out of Peloponnesus by the Achæans, withdrew to Athens, from whence, sixty years after, about 1044 A. C., they emigrated, headed by Neleus and others of the sons of Codrus. They settled on the southern coast of Lydia, and the northern shore of Caria, in Asia, which together with the islands of Samos and Chios, took from them the name of Ionia. They maintained their independence until the time of Cyrus, when they submitted to the Persian yoke.

190 men. To avenge these losses, Darius resolved to invade Greece in person, and employed three years in preparing for it. When everything was ready, Egypt revolted, which caused one division of the army to be directed against Egypt, and the other against Greece; but before the army commenced its march, Darius died, in the thirty-sixth year of his reign, after nominating his son Xerxes his successor, 485 B.C.

7. Darius, during his reign, perfected the civil and military organization of the empire. The satraps which he appointed were the civil governors of the provinces; and to keep them dependent, there was associated with them, a royal secretary, who received and communicated to them the commands of the king. Posts of couriers were established throughout the empire, to secure a safe and rapid communication. Periodical visits were made to the provinces by royal commissioners, or by the king himself, accompanied by an army. The revenue was regularly collected, mostly in kind, which was expended in maintaining the civil servants and army in the provinces or otherwise. The army was kept up or augmented in war by a general conscription; and mercenaries, generally Greeks, were also employed. In time of peace, divisions of the army were encamped in the open fields, and stationed as garrisons in the cities. The court, from the time of Darius, had attained its complete form; and the government, soon after, was wholly concentrated in the seraglio—the eunuchs, queen-mothers, wives, and concubines, influencing the government, and instigating rebellion and violence.

8. Xerxes I. was the eldest son of Darius, by Atossa, the daughter of Cyrus, whose influence over her husband was boundless. Xerxes reigned twenty years, from 485 to 465 B. C. He was educated in the seraglio, and knew nothing beyond the art of representing the pomp of royalty. He was voluptuous and cruel. In the second year of his reign, he brought the Egyptians again under the Persian yoke, and appointed his brother Achæmenes satrap, who treated them with great cruelty. Xerxes was instigated by Mardonius and the Greek Pisistratus to a war against Greece, for which at first he felt no inclination. Three years were spent in making the most stupendous preparations, and troops were collected from every part of the Persian empire. That the Greeks might derive no aid from their colonies in Italy and Sicily, an alliance was formed with the Carthaginians, by which they engaged to invade the Italian and Sicilian Greeks. In 481, Xerxes led an enormous army into Asia Minor, and wintered at Sardis. In the following spring, the army was reviewed at Abydos, and, after crossing the Hellespont, was numbered at Doriscus. The army then amounted to 1,700,000, infantry, and 82,000 cavalry. In the fleet there were 1027 ships of war, and 3000 galleys of three banks of oars, having on board 517,610 persons. Numerous additions were made to the army during its march through Thrace and Macedonia, so that

Xerxes reckoned the whole number of fighting men at 610; and together with their servants and camp followers, 6 millions: but Pliny and Diodorus estimate the whole number of persons engaged in the war on the part of Persia at millions.

The Persian army traversed the coasts of Thrace and Ionia, to receive its supply of provisions from the fleet; and, arriving in Thessaly, proceeded, by rapid marches, towards the pass of Thermopylæ, a very narrow defile on the *Sinus Malia* (the Bay of Malia). The Athenians and Spartans, aided by the Corinthians, Thespians, Plateans, and Æginites, were determined to withstand the invader. Leonidas, king of Sparta, was chosen to defend this important pass with 6,000 men. Xerxes offered a weak attempt to corrupt him, imperiously summoned him to lay down his arms. "Let him come," said Leonidas, "and I will meet him." For two days, the Persians in vain strove to force their way, and were repeatedly repulsed with great slaughter. At length, by the treachery of some of the Thesalians, who had offered their services to Xerxes, a secret and unguarded track was discovered to the Persians; and through this path a numerous body of Persian troops penetrated in the night to the opposite side of the pass.

The defence of the pass then became a fruitless attempt on the part of the Greeks; and Leonidas, foreseeing certain destruction, commanded all to retire but 300 of his countrymen, 300 Thespians. His motive was to give the Persians a just idea of the spirit of that foe whom they vainly hoped to subdue. With his brave Spartans, were all cut off except one man, (Herodotus, 6, 480), who brought the news to Sparta, where he was rewarded with ignominy as a cowardly fugitive. A monument, erected on the spot, bore this noble inscription, written by the Simonides: "O stranger, tell it at Lacedæmon, that we here lie in obedience to her laws."

The Persians then poured down upon Attica. The inhabitants, men, women, and children, together with their property, betook themselves to their fleet, abandoning the city, which the Persians pillaged and burned, July 20. The fleet of the Athenians, consisting of 380 sail, was attacked in the straits of Salamis by that of the Persians, amounting to 1,200 ships. Xerxes himself beheld, from an eminence on the coast, the total discomfiture of his squadron, Sept. 23, 480. He then fled with precipitation across the Hellespont, and returned to Sardis. The use of the army was afterwards sent home, and Mardonius was ordered to prosecute the war. In the following year, Mardonius, at the head of 300,000 Persians, was totally defeated, and himself slain at Plateæ, by the combined army of the Athenians and Spartan Pausanias, under the command of the Spartan Pausanias and the Athenian Aristides. The slaughter was incredible, as, of an army of 300,000 men, only 40,000 are said to have

returned to Asia. To complete their triumph, on the same day the Greeks engaged and destroyed the remains of the Persian fleet at the promontory of Mycale, in Ionia (Asia Minor), Sept. 25, 479. The Ionians then revolted from the Persians, and formed an alliance with the Athenians.

10. Xerxes, ashamed of the result of his enterprise against Greece, returned from Sardis to Shushan by way of Babylon, where he destroyed the magnificent temple of Belus, and committed other excesses. The Persians were now obliged to concentrate their forces in Asia Minor, the most western province of the empire, to prevent the revolt of the Asiatic Greeks. The Greeks had now little to fear from the Persian arms by land; and in 469, they were deprived of the sovereignty of the sea, by Cimon, the son of Miltiades, who in one day destroyed both their fleet and their army on the Eurymedon; and, by the conquest of the Thracian Chersonese, wrested from them the key of Europe. From this time, Xerxes ceased to provide fleets or armies, and gave himself up entirely to his pleasures. By such conduct, he drew upon himself universal contempt; and in 464 B.C. he was murdered by Artabanus, the commander of his life-guard. The assassin then persuaded Artaxerxes, the third son of the king, that Darius, his next elder brother, had taken the life of his father, in order to place himself on the throne; who, to revenge the supposed paracide, put his brother to death.

11. Artaxerxes I., surnamed Longimanus (or long-handed), was unable to keep possession of the throne, without assassinating in his turn Artabanus. He next had to oppose his elder brother Hystaspes, who brought an army from Bactria, where he was governor, to enforce his right to the throne, which he twice defeated. Scarcely had he secured himself against this danger, when the Egyptians, hearing of the civil contentions, revolted; made Inarus their king; and, with the assistance of the Athenians, collected a large force by sea and land. Inarus defeated the Persian army commanded by the king's brother, Achæmenes, who lost his life in the battle, 459 B. C. A second army was sent against Egypt, under the command of Megabyzus, satrap of Syria, who defeated Inarus, and obliged him to capitulate in the town of Biblus; whilst Amyrtæus retreated with the remainder of the Egyptian army, and maintained himself in the morasses, which were inaccessible to the Persians. The Athenian fleet was captured by the Persians; but a second armament of 200 ships, under the command of Cimon, attacked and totally destroyed the Persian fleet of 300 sail in the vicinity of Cyprus; and, landing afterwards in Cilicia, completed his triumph, by defeating 300,000 Persians under Megabyzus, 449 B. C. Cimon now undertook and completed the reduction of Cyprus, and added that island to the dominion of Athens; but this great man died in the moment of victory, wasted by disease and fatigue. The naval and military power of Persia was completely broken by

these repeated defeats; and Artaxerxes now had the prudence to sue for peace, which was granted by the Greeks on terms most honourable to the nation. They stipulated for the freedom of all the Grecian cities of Asia, and that the fleets of Persia should not approach their coasts from the Euxine to the extreme boundary of Pamphylia, and no land force within three days' journey of the *Ægean* Sea; while the Athenians, on their part, only engaged not to commit hostilities upon the Persian dominions.

12. Megabyzus, the powerful satrap of Syria, enraged at the execution of Inarus and fifty Greeks, by the orders of Artaxerxes, (on the importunity of his mother, in revenge for the death of her son, Achæmenes,) in violation of the promise made by him, and confirmed by the king, raised a rebellion in Syria. He twice defeated the royal forces sent against him, and prescribed himself the conditions on which he would be reconciled to his sovereign. This was the first example of a successful insurrection of one of the Persian satraps, exhibiting the first symptoms of the decline of the empire, 447. During the Peloponnesian war, Artaxerxes was often solicited to aid the Lacedæmonians; but he would not understand their request. He died in the forty-first year of his reign, 424. Revolutions in the government now succeeded each other with rapidity and violence. Xerxes II., the only legitimate son, and successor of Artaxerxes, was slain, after a forty-five days' reign, by his bastard brother, Sogdianus. The latter, in his turn, after a reign of six months, was deposed and put to death by Ochus, another bastard brother.

13. Ochus was known to the Greeks by the name of Darius II. Nothus (the bastard). He reigned nineteen years, from 423 to 405 B. C., and was governed almost entirely by his wife, Parysatis, and his three principal eunuchs, Artoxares, Artibarxanes, and Athros. His brother Arsites, and the eunuch Artoxares, on separate occasions, attempted to open a way to the throne; but were subdued, and put to death. In this period, the decline of the state advanced with hurried steps; partly by reason of the extinction of the legitimate royal line, and partly by the practice of placing more than one province, together with the military command, in the hands of the same satrap. Although the repeated insurrections of the satraps were repressed, the treacherous policy that was often resorted to, in order to succeed, exhibited to the world the weakness of the government. The most dangerous insurrection was that of Pysathus, satrap of Lydia, 414, who was induced to give himself up, and then executed. The Egyptian Amyrtæus, who defended himself in the morasses, after the death of Inarus, re-appeared with an army, and was elected king. With the assistance of the Arabians, he drove the Persians from Egypt (410), and pursued them as far as Phœnicia. Ochus sent an army to recover Egypt, but without

success; when he was obliged to acknowledge Amyrtæus. The Medes followed the example of the Egyptians; but they were soon vanquished, and forced to submit. Ochus was more successful against the Greeks of Asia Minor. His lieutenants, Pharnabazus and Tissaphernes, following the advice of Alcibiades, assisted in the Peloponnesian war the Athenians and Lacedæmonians alternately, according as the one or the other began to decline; and thus, without any great effort on their part, helped the two parties to weaken each other. In the twentieth year of the war (413), Ochus, in return for the money he had lent the Lacedæmonians, reannexed to his empire those Grecian cities and islands which, in 449, Artaxerxes I. had been forced to acknowledge independent. In 407, Ochus sent his son Cyrus, (the younger,) then scarcely sixteen, to Sardis, as satrap of Asia Minor, and gave him almost unlimited power. Cyrus gave an early proof of his ambitious pretensions, in punishing with death some children of royal blood who refused to cover their hands with the sleeves of their robes in his presence—a mark of respect never required but by the king himself. Cyrus was recalled by his father, who determined to punish him; but gave way on the importunity of his mother, and reinstated him in his government. Cyrus, in place of pursuing the politic course of affording alternate aid to the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, supplied the latter with money; which enabled Lysander, the Spartan admiral, to pay the men of his fleet, to capture Athens, and to oblige the Athenians to submit to the dictation of Sparta, 404.

14. Artaxerxes II., surnamed Memnon, on account of his retentive memory, also called Arsaces, succeeded on the death of his father, Darius II. Nothus, notwithstanding the exertions of his mother, Parysatis, to secure the throne for her favourite son, Cyrus, 405. Disappointed in the succession, Cyrus attempted to assassinate his elder brother at his coronation; but, on being pardoned and reinstated in his government of Asia Minor, he was so little affected by his brother's generosity, that he determined to accomplish his object by open rebellion. Under pretence of making war on Thrace, Cyrus collected an army of 100,000 men, of various nations, and 13,000 Greeks, under the command of Clearchus, the Lacedæmonian. With these forces, Cyrus marched to Babylon; when Artaxerxes came against him with 900,000 men, and defeated him in the bloody battle of Cunaxa, about thirty miles south of Babylon, between the Tigris and Euphrates. The thirteen thousand Greeks had almost gained the victory, when Cyrus pressed on too zealously against his brother, and was slain by the royal guards, 401 B. C. This expedition, and particularly the retreat of the ten thousand surviving Greeks, by a route of more than eighteen hundred miles, has been immortalized by Xenophon, the director of the achievement, in his *Anabasis*. In the following year, Tissaphernes, who succeeded Cyrus in the government of Asia Minor,

demanding the submission of the Ionian states; which, being assisted by the Lacedæmonians, under Agesilaus, who engaged the remnant of the ten thousand Greeks on their return, were able to resist the Persians for several years, until the Athenians, and other Greeks, were instigated by Persian gold to declare war against Sparta, 394. Artaxerxes finally gained the advantage, when all Asia Minor submitted to his authority, 387; and, under colour of advice, or admonition, laid his commands on all the states of Greece. In his other wars, Artaxerxes was not equally successful. He failed in his expedition against the Cadusii, in the mountains of Caucasus, 384; and in his attempt to recover Egypt from king Nectabanes I.; which proved that he was not fitted for military command. The decay of the empire now became manifest. In the court, all was ruled by the desire of revenge in the women; and the political organization was so corrupt, that the satraps waged war against each other. Before the death of Artaxerxes II., a quarrel arose about the succession, between his three legitimate sons, which led to the death of the two elder, Darius and Ariaspes, and Orasnes, a favourite son by a concubine. The remaining one hundred and fourteen sons of the royal concubines kept themselves quiet; but the afflicted monarch died of grief. Ochus concealed his father's death for ten months, until he had made the necessary arrangements, and then promulgated it at the same time with his own accession, 358 B. C.

15. Ochus assumed the name of Artaxerxes III.; but he is known in history by his true name. He conceived he could not establish his power but by the total destruction of the royal family; and accordingly he made dreadful havoc among his relatives, and the nobles whom he suspected of disaffection. The reign of Ochus presented the same character as that of Artaxerxes II.—of decay and revolt. The insurrections in Asia Minor, Egypt, and Cyprus, were put down principally by treachery and Grecian auxiliaries. Ochus plundered and destroyed the principal cities and temples of Egypt, slew the ox Apis, and made the priests, who had worshipped him as a god, eat his flesh. He took away all the manuscripts from the archives, and carried them, with an immense booty, to Babylon. After this successful campaign, Ochus gave himself up to indolence and luxury, leaving the administration of affairs to the eunuch Bagoas, and his general, Mentor. But Bagoas, himself an Egyptian, never forgave the severities which the king had practised on his native country. Accordingly, he procured his master's death by poison, 338 B. C. He then collected and sent back, as far as he was able, the manuscripts which Ochus had taken from Egypt. The removing of these manuscripts may in part account for the fact that neither Manetho nor Erastosthenes, who had free access to the archives of Egypt, were able to collect from them a complete and accurate history of the country.

16. Arses, the youngest and only surviving son of Ochus, was raised to the throne by Bagoas, who had put to death his elder brothers, and intended reigning in his name; but finding that the young king was determined to punish the murderer of his father and brothers, Bagoas anticipated him, by destroying him and all his family, after a reign of about two years, in 336.

17. Darius III., Codomanus, a descendant of Darius Nothus, was next raised to the throne; but Bagoas, repenting of his choice, plotted the death of this king also, who discovered his design, and compelled the wretch to swallow the poison himself. During these murderous scenes at the Persian court, preparations had commenced in Greece for the overthrow of the Persian monarchy. Philip of Macedon, having made himself master of all the states of Greece, persuaded them to determine on a war against Persia, and to appoint him to conduct it, with unlimited powers. In 336, Philip sent his generals, Parmenio, Amyntas, and Attalus, with an army, into Asia Minor, to commence hostilities, intending to follow himself; but, a short time after, he was assassinated at the nuptial feast of his daughter. His son, Alexander, procured for himself the same powers as had been conferred on his father, and was acknowledged the absolute commander of the Greeks in the Persian war. In the spring of 334 B. C., the second year of the reign of Codomanus, he crossed the Hellespont, and defeated a Persian army of five times his numbers, at the passage of the Granicus. After the loss of the great battle of Issus in 333, and Arbela in 331, Codomanus retreated into Media and Bactria, for the purpose of collecting another army; when he fell a victim to the treachery of Nabarsanes, a Persian nobleman, and Bessus, satrap of Bactria. When Alexander heard that Darius was kept under restraint by two traitors, he started in pursuit of them with the greatest expedition: but he arrived too late; for the traitors, on hearing of his approach, mortally wounded their unfortunate sovereign, and fled. Alexander was moved to tears when he beheld the pale and lifeless body of the king, and sent the corpse to the queen at Susa, that it might be buried according to the Persian custom. With such unexampled rapidity did Alexander bring the whole Persian empire under his power, that in five years, from 334 to 329, he had subdued all the countries from the Hellespont to Sogdiana, and from Egypt to India.

[For the history of the war, see the *History of Macedon*.]

SECTION XXI.*

THE HISTORY OF EGYPT,

From the reign of Psammeticus to the Conquest by Alexander the Great, 650—332 B.C.

1. [FROM this epoch Egyptian history assumes an authentic character. Psammeticus, after overthrowing the oligarchy, reigned alone from about 650—617 B. C., and fixed his residence at Sais, in Lower Egypt, although Memphis continued the capital. He entirely changed the ancient policy of government: foreign auxiliaries were employed; commerce was encouraged; and foreigners were invited to settle in Egypt. The influence of these changes on the national character, and upon the political system in particular, induced the desire for foreign conquest, which was principally directed against Asia. Psammeticus placed three armies in garrison; at Pelusium, to prevent the incursions of the Arabs and Syrians; at Marea, to overawe the Libyans; and at Elephanta, to repel the Ethiopians—which, however, renounced allegiance, and obtained a settlement in Ethiopia (see page 32). Psammeticus obtained possession of Azotus, a frontier city of Syria, after repeated attempts, during twenty-nine years, which opened the way for his successors into Asia.

2. His son Necho, the Pharoah-Necho of Scripture, reigned sixteen years, from 617—601. He built fleets in the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, and attempted to unite them by cutting a canal (ninety-six miles) across the Isthmus of Suez, in which undertaking 120,000 workmen are said to have perished. A Phœnician fleet, equipped at his expense, sailed down the Red Sea, passed the Straits of Babelmandel, and, coasting the African continent, discovered the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, two thousand years before the re-discovery by the Portuguese (1392); and returned to Egypt through the Straits of Gibraltar, after an absence of three years. He led an army against the Chaldean Nabopolassar, in order to stop the progress of his arms, which was refused a passage through Judea; when king Josiah was defeated and slain, in the battle of Megiddo (2 Chron. 35: 21). Necho then advanced to the Euphrates, captured the city of Carchemish (*Circesium*) and other places from the Babylonians, which he garrisoned. On his return to Egypt, he took Jerusalem, deposed Jehoahaz, and carried him away captive, after placing Jehoiakim upon the throne (611). A few years after, Necho was stripped of all his conquests by Nebuchadnezzar, the distinguished son of Nabopolassar, and obliged to return to his own states.

3. Psammis succeeded his father Necho, and reigned from 601—595. He directed an expedition against Ethiopia, and

died on his return. His successor, Apries, the Pharaoh-Hopra of Scripture, carried on a successful war against Tyre and Sidon, and then led an expedition against Cyrene, in Africa, which was unsuccessful, and led to a revolution, headed by Amasis, one of his officers; when he was obliged to withdraw to Upper Egypt, where he maintained himself for some time. During this period, Nebuchadnezzar II. invaded Egypt, and without difficulty made himself master of the country, and carried away numbers of the Egyptians to the countries beyond the Euphrates. Apries was at last defeated and put to death, which terminated the family of Psammeticus (570). Amasis overcame the prejudice of birth by popular measures, by the respect he showed to the priests, and by the wisdom of his laws and the administration of his government. He married a Greek woman; encouraged the intercourse with her countrymen; and allowed them to establish a factory at Naucratis for their merchandise, which produced the most beneficial consequences. Pythagoras, Solon, and Thales, are supposed to have visited Egypt in this reign, during which it reached its highest pitch of prosperity. Amasis had been engaged in disputes with the Persian conqueror, Cyrus; but he died before the invasion of Egypt by his son and successor, Cambyses.

4. Psammenitus succeeded his father, Amasis, in 525, and was attacked, within six months, by Cambyses, who defeated the Egyptian army at Pelusium; and the king shortly after falling into the hands of the conqueror, was put to death, which terminated the empire of the Pharoas. Cambyses treated the Egyptians with great cruelty, especially the priests; but, after his death, Egypt received a Persian governor, and was ruled with mildness: nevertheless, repeated revolts occurred, which may be principally attributed to the hatred and influence of the priests. The first revolt took place in the last year of the reign of Darius Hystaspes, which was suppressed by Xerxes, who imposed an additional tribute (422). The second revolt broke out on the death of Xerxes, when they elected Inarus their king, who surrendered to Megabyzus, satrap of Asia Minor, and was afterwards treacherously crucified by order of Artaxerxes I. The third revolt occurred under Darius II. (Nothus), when Amyrtæus of Sais, one of the leaders in the previous revolt, was made king, and succeeded in driving the Persians from Egypt (410), which maintained its independence for sixty-four years, until reduced by Darius Ochus, in 350. From that period to the present time, Egypt has been subject to the dominion of foreigners; so exactly has the prophecy of Ezekiel been fulfilled (Ezek. 29: 13—16). When Alexander the Great proceeded from Judea to Egypt, he was received with joy as a deliverer from the Persian yoke;—the Egyptian nobles went out to meet him as far as *Pelusium*, to tender him their homage; and the Persian officers *surrendering to the conqueror, without striking a blow.* Alex-

ander then entered Memphis, the capital, in triumph; and from thence set out on his mad journey through the desert to Ammonium, where he was acknowledged by the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, as a true son of the god! On his return to the sea-coast, opposite the island of Pharos, where there was a good harbour, he ordered a city to be built on the spot, and to be called Alexandria, after his own name, 332 B. C.]

SECTION XXII.*

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

The Third Period—The Persian Wars, from 500—449 B.C.

1. [THE assistance given by the Athenians in the revolt of the Asiatic Greeks, which led to the burning of Sardes, the capital of Lydia, was the origin of the national hatred between Persia and Greece, and of the wars that ensued. After the reduction of the Ionians, and the destruction of Miletus, their flourishing capital—a city which at that time, together with Tyre and Carthage, engrossed the trade of the world,—Darius Hystaspes determined to be avenged of the Greeks for aiding in the revolt. In this he was further instigated by Hippias, the banished tyrant of Athens, who was evidently the animating spirit of the whole undertaking.

2. Greece was then composed of a number of small independent states, connected by no common bond, but frequently engaged in feuds and hostilities—the predominant states being Sparta and Athens. The invasion of the Persians united them in one common effort to repel the invaders; and thus, by awakening in them a national spirit, laid the foundation of their future greatness.

3. Darius sent heralds to demand homage from the Grecian states, especially requiring the Athenians to receive back Hippias. All the islands, and most of the states on the mainland, acknowledged the Persian authority; but Athens and Sparta resented the demand, and in the one place the heralds were thrown into a cave, in the other into a well, and bade procure there the earth and water which they wanted.* They then prepared to resist the power of Persia. The first expedition against them, under Mardonius, was thwarted by a storm; whilst the second, under Dares and Artaphernes, was frustrated by the Athenians, under the command of Miltiades, who defeated them in the great battle of Marathon, and obliged the Persians to return to Asia (see page 87).

* The delivery of earth and water was the usual form in which the Persians exacted submission.

4. The immediate consequence of this great victory was a naval expedition against the islands which had acknowledged the Persian authority, more particularly Paros, to which Miltiades persuades the Athenians. He laid siege to Paros; but, on being dangerously wounded, he raised the siege, and returned to Athens; when he was accused of receiving a bribe, convicted, and fined fifty talents (£9,400), which being unable to pay, he was thrown into prison, where he died of his wounds (488).

5. The history of Athens, as is usual in every democratic state, now becomes that of eminent individuals at the head of affairs—as generals or demagogues. Themistocles and Aristides succeeded to the power that had been possessed by Miltiades; the one uniting to an astonishing degree in his own person the most splendid talents of statesman and general, with a spirit of intrigue, and even of egotism; the other was remarkable for his singular disinterestedness. Themistocles obtained the command of the fleet, and prosecuted the design of Miltiades against the islands; whilst the management of state affairs was confided to Aristides. On the return of Themistocles as a conqueror, he insidiously disseminated reports to the prejudice of his colleague, which led the people to demand the judgment of the ostracism; when Aristides, who had obtained from his fellow-citizens the epithet of *the Just*, for the wisdom and moderation he had displayed in the courts of law, and in the management of state affairs, was banished for ten years (483 B.C.).

6. Themistocles alone, at the head of affairs, pursued his plan for making Athens a maritime power—as the best means of defence for a country everywhere open to invasion from the sea. He procured the profits of the silver mines to be employed in equipping an armament of 200 galleys, which he successfully employed against the island of Ægina, then the naval rival of Athens, and an object of popular hatred. When the second mighty invasion of Greece, under Xerxes, was about to take place, Themistocles proved himself equal to the emergency. He recommended a common union of all the Hellenic states, that the command should be given to Sparta, and that the sea should be made the theatre of the war. He also, forgetting all petty jealousy, proposed the recall of Aristides from banishment, that his services might not be lost to his country. He animated the allies with his own spirit, which led to the heroic defence of Thermopylæ; the great naval victory off Salamis; and the final defeat and expulsion of the Persians, after the battle on land at Plateæ, and the naval battle off Mycale, both fought on the same day, Sept. 25, 479 B.C. (See page 89.)

7. At this time the national character of the Greeks was at its highest elevation. The common danger had annihilated all partial jealousies between the states, and given them union as *a nation*. At the Olympic games, all the people of Greece rose up to salute Themistocles. But with the cessation of danger,

those jealousies recommenced. Sparta meanly opposed the rebuilding of deserted Athens, which Themistocles pressed forward—men, women, slaves, and even children, joining their efforts; when Athens, in a very short time, rose from her ruins, with a great accession of strength and splendour. The harbour of the Peræus was enlarged and fortified, so as to form the completest arsenal that then belonged to any nation, and joined it to Athens by what were called “the long walls” (477).

8. The expulsion of the Persians wrought an entire change in the internal and external relations of Greece. From being the aggressed, the Greeks became the aggressors: to free their Asiatic countrymen from the Persian yoke, and to clear the *Ægean* and *Mediterranean* Seas of their hostile squadrons, was now the chief object or pretext for continuing so profitable a war. The combined Grecian fleet was commanded by the Spartan Pausanius (brother of Leonidas), with Aristides and Cimon (son of Miltiades) under him. Cyprus was attacked, and Byzantium was taken after a short siege, when its great wealth became the prize of the conquerors, 470. The share obtained by Pausanius proved fatal to him. It led him to desire to make himself the supreme master of Greece, to solicit the daughter of Xerxes in marriage, and to propose to assist him in the conquest of Greece. His letters were intercepted. He was recalled and brought to trial, but was acquitted; when, on fresh evidence being obtained against him, he was warned of his danger, and fled for safety to the temple of Minerva. The Spartans did not dare to drag the traitor from that sanctuary; but his mother showed a virtue truly Lacedæmonian, in laying a stone at the door of the temple, which was followed by others, until blocked up. The Ephori, then ordered a wall to be built round the temple, when the traitor was starved to death, 469. Themistocles was implicated in the treason. He appears to have been acquainted with the plot, but denied that it had ever received his sanction. He was banished by ostracism for ten years; but the malice of his enemies pursued him in his exile, and obliged him to seek refuge at the Persian court, 466. Artaxerxes I. received the banished statesman with marks of distinction and regard, assigning the revenues of three cities for his support. In the revolt under Inarus, Themistocles was sent with a Persian fleet to prevent the Athenians assisting the Egyptians; and that he might neither be ungrateful to his magnanimous protector, nor an enemy to his country, he ended his life by poison, 457.

9. The treason of Pausanius led the allies to transfer the supreme direction of affairs to the Athenians, which had a decided effect on all the future relations of Greece, by increasing the jealousy between Sparta and Athens. A permanent confederacy was established, comprising most of the Grecian states, *without Peloponnesus, especially the islands; and Aristides*

was appointed by general consent to fix the contributions to be annually furnished by each for the prosecution of the Persian war. The loss of Themistocles was supplied by Cimon, who, to purer politics, united equal talents. He protracted the war against the Persians, in order to maintain the union of the Greeks. After expelling the Persians from Thrace and many of their possessions in Asia Minor, Cimon attacked and defeated the Persians by sea and land, on the same day, at the mouth of the river Eurymedon, 470 or 466 B. C. The consequence of these victories was, that hostilities ceased between Persia and Greece for several years.

10. Whilst the Athenians were acquiring wealth and glory in the war against Persia, Laconia was laid waste by an earthquake, which destroyed 120,000 of its inhabitants, and overwhelmed the city of Sparta (464). The oppressed Helots and the Messenians took advantage of this calamity to make a vigorous effort for the recovery of their freedom. Archidamus, the Spartan king, repulsed their first attacks; but they made themselves masters of the city of Ithome, which they fortified. Sparta, at this crisis, solicited aid from Athens, which was only granted by the influence of Cimon, who was sent with 4,000 men; but, from the opposition which the application had met with, the Spartans refused the proffered aid. The popular feeling then burst forth against Cimon, who was accused of being in the interest of Sparta, and banished for five years, (464 B. C.)

11. The death of Aristides, which had happened some years before (468), and the banishment of Cimon, concurred in elevating Pericles to the head of affairs. A war between Sparta and Athens soon followed, in which most of the states of Greece took a part. The Athenians were defeated at Halæ; and in their turn routed the enemy; and then carried the war against Ægina, which they subdued. In the course of this war, Cimon, though in exile, eager to show that he had no favour for the Spartans, came to the Athenian camp with one hundred of his friends, who had gone into voluntary banishment with him; but the Athenians refused his services, and forced him to retire, when his generous friends, forming themselves into a separate band, precipitated themselves upon the Spartans, and were all cut off. This incident had a powerful effect in removing the popular prejudices against this illustrious man, and Pericles, perceiving that his own popularity might suffer by opposing his recall from banishment, took the merit of being the first to propose it.

12. On his return (456), Cimon endeavoured to re-establish the domestic tranquillity of Greece, and at the same time to renew the war against the Persians. After a lapse of five years he succeeded in his object; and the consequence was a *victorious expedition* against the Persians, in which their naval and *military power* was completely broken by repeated defeats, when

Artaxerxes I. had the prudence to sue for peace. (See page 90.) The last fifty years were the period of the highest glory of the Greeks; and they owed their prosperity entirely to their union. The peace with Persia, and the death of the man whose grand political object was to preserve union among the Greeks, dissolving that connection, brought back the jealousies between the predominant states, the intestine disorders of each, and the national weakness.

13. The martial and the patriotic spirit began visibly to decline in Athens. An acquaintance with Asia, and an importation of her wealth, introduced a relish for Asiatic manners and luxuries. With the Athenians, however, this luxurious spirit was under the guidance of taste and genius. It led to the cultivation of the fine arts; and the age of Pericles, though the national glory was in its wane, is the era of the highest internal splendour and magnificence of Greece.

SECTION XXIII.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

The Third Period—Age of Pericles—The Peloponnesian War— The Thirty Tyrants at Athens.

1. **REPUBLICS**, equally with monarchies, are generally regulated by a single will; only, in the former, there is a more frequent change of masters. The death of Cimon left Pericles for some time without a rival, and he ruled Athens with little less than arbitrary sway: and Athens pretended at this time to the command of Greece. She held the allied states in the most absolute subjection, and lavished their subsidies, bestowed for the national defence, in magnificent buildings, games, and festivals, for her own citizens. The tributary states loudly complained, but durst not call this domineering republic to account; and the event which now took place silenced all inquiries of that nature, dividing the nation into two great parties, and binding the lesser cities to the strictest subordination on the predominant powers—Athens and Sparta.

2. *The Peloponnesian War*, 431—404 B. C.—The state of Corinth had been included in the last treaty between Athens and Sparta. The Corinthians had for some time been at war with the people of Corcyra, an ancient colony of their own, when both parties solicited the aid of Athens, who, on the persuasion of Pericles, took part with the latter—a measure which the Corinthians, with great justice, complained of, not only as an infraction of the treaty with Sparta, but as a breach of a general rule of the national policy, that a foreign power should never

interfere in the disputes between a colony and its parent state. War was proclaimed on this ground between Athens and Lacedæmon, each supported by its respective allies. The greater part of the continental states of Greece declared for Sparta; whilst the islands, dreading the naval power of Athens, took part with that republic.* Sparta therefore presented herself as the deliverer of Greece from the domination of Athens. The Lacedæmonian army amounted to upwards of 60,000 men, or more than double that of the Athenians and their allies; but this inequality was balanced by the great superiority of the Athenian navy. The plan of hostilities of each was, therefore, entirely different. The Athenian fleet ravaged the coasts of Peloponnesus; while the Lacedæmonian army desolated the territory of Attica and its allied states, and proceeded, with little resistance, almost to the gates of Athens.

3. The limited plan of this work renders it necessary to exclude even the outlines of this war, which continued for twenty-seven years, with various and alternate success. The detail of the first twenty-one years is to be found in Thucydides, one of the best historians, as well as the greatest generals, of antiquity; and the transactions of the remaining period are to be found detailed by Xenophon in his Grecian history. Pericles died before its termination—a splendid ornament of his country, but reproached as a corrupter of her manners, by fostering the spirit of luxury. Alcibiades ran a similar career, with equal talents, equal ambition, and still less purity of moral principle. In the interval of a truce with Sparta, he inconsiderately projected the conquest of Sicily; and, failing in the attempt, was, on his return to Athens, condemned to death for treason, from which he only escaped by flight. He hesitated not to wreak his vengeance against his country, by selling his services, first to Sparta, and afterwards to Persia. Finally, he purchased his peace with his country by betraying the power which protected him, and returned to Athens the idol of a populace as versatile as worthless.

4. The fatal defeat of the Athenian fleet at Ægos Potamos, by Lysander, reduced Athens to the last extremity. Of 300 ships which sailed from the Piræus, only eight returned to the coast of Attica. The Lacedæmonians blockaded the city by land and sea, and reduced the Athenians to the last extremity. After sustaining a blockade of six months, the war was ended by the absolute submission of the Athenians, who agreed to demolish the fortifications of the harbour of Piræus; to limit their fleet to twelve ships; and undertake for the future no military enterprise,

* *Confederates of the Athenians*:—Islands, Chios, Samos, Lesbos, all those of the Archipelago (Thera and Melos excepted, which remained neutral), Corcyra, Zacynthus; the Grecian Colonies in Asia Minor, and on the coast of Thrace and Macedonia; in Greece itself, the cities of Naupactus, Platæa, and those of Acarnania.

Confederates of the Spartans:—All the Peloponnesians (Argos and Achæa excepted, which remained neutral), Megara, Locris, Phocis, Bœotia, the cities of Ambracia and Anactorium, and the island of Leuca.

but under the command of the Lacedæmonians, 405 B. C. Such was the issue of the famous Peloponnesian war, after a continuance of twenty-seven years; and with it ceased the dominion of Athens.

5. It is to the same Lysander, who terminated this destructive war so gloriously for Lacedæmon, that history ascribes the first great breach of the constitution of his country, by procuring the abrogation of that ancient law which prohibited the introduction of gold into that republic. It was not, however, allowed a free circulation, but was deposited in the public treasury, to be employed solely for the uses of the state. It was declared a capital offence if any should be found in the possession of a private citizen. Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government in that state, and substituted in its place an oligarchy of thirty governors (who were termed *tyrants* by the Greek historians), whose power was absolute. He likewise placed a Spartan garrison in the citadel. It is computed by Xenophon, with some exaggeration, that a greater number of Athenian citizens lost their lives by these tyrants, in the short space of eight months, than had fallen during the whole of the Peloponnesian war. The people were awed into silence, and the most eminent of the citizens left their country in despair; but a band of patriots, headed by Thrasybulus, attacked, vanquished, and expelled the usurpers, and once more re-established the democracy.

6. One event which happened during the reign of terror, under the thirty tyrants, reflected more disgrace on the Athenian name than their national humiliation. This was the persecution and death of the illustrious Socrates; he who, in the words of Cicero, "first brought philosophy from heaven to dwell upon earth; who familiarized her to the acquaintance of man; who applied her divine doctrines to the common purposes of life, and the advancement of human happiness, and the true discernment of good and evil." This good man, who was himself the patron of every virtue which he taught, became an object of hatred and disgust to the corrupted Athenians. He had excited the jealousy of the Sophists, whose futile logic he derided and exposed: they represented him as an enemy to the religion of his country, because, without regard to the popular superstitions, he led the mind to the knowledge of a Supreme Being, the Creator and ruler of the Universe, and the belief of a future state of retribution. His defence he made himself, with the manly fortitude of conscious innocence;* but in vain: his judges were his personal enemies; and he was condemned to die by poison, 397 B. C. (See Section XXXIII. § 5.) He drank the poisoned cup without the smallest emotion, and in the agony of death showed his friends an example of tranquillity which their

* Plato, in his *Apologia Socrates*, has given an ample account of it.

deep-felt grief denied them all power of imitating.* The Athenians were soon awakened to shame and remorse. They expressed their sorrow for his death by the utmost abhorrence for his persecutors, who met with their deserved punishment; but the reproach was so indelibly fixed upon their character, that no contrition could wipe it out.

7. On the death of Darius Nothus, his eldest son, Artaxerxes Mnemon, succeeded to the empire of Persia. His younger brother Cyrus formed the project of dethroning him; and with the aid of 13,000 Greeks, under the command of the Spartan Clearchus, engaged him at Cunaxa, near Babylon; but was defeated and slain—a just reward of his most culpable enterprise. The remainder of the Grecian army, to the amount of 10,000, under the command of Xenophon, made a most amazing retreat, traversing a hostile country of 1600 miles in extent, from Babylon to the banks of the Euxine. Xenophon has beautifully written the history of this expedition; but has painted the character of Cyrus in too flattering colours, and without the smallest censure of his criminal ambition. (See page 92.)

8. The Greek cities of Asia had taken part with Cyrus. Sparta was engaged to defend her countrymen, and consequently was involved in a war with Persia. Had Athens added her strength, the Greeks might have once more defied the power of Asia; but jealousy kept the states divided, and even hostile to each other: and the gold of Artaxerxes excited a general league in Greece against Lacedæmon of Argos, Thebes, and Corinth; and Athens soon after joined the confederacy. Agesilaus, king of Sparta, sustained for a considerable time the honour of his country, and won some important battles in Asia; but others were lost in Greece; and a naval defeat near Cnidos, utterly destroyed the Lacedæmonian fleet, and deprived them of the command of the sea, 394. Finally, to escape total destruction, the Spartans sued for peace, and obtained it, by the sacrifice to Persia of all the Asiatic colonies, 387 B. C. Artaxerxes further demanded Cyprus and Clazomene, and obtained for his allies, the Athenians, the islands of Scyros, Lemnos, and Imbros—a disgraceful treaty—a mortifying picture of the humiliation of the Greeks, and of the fatal effects of discord and the want of union among themselves.

9. [The preponderance of Sparta on the continent of Greece, was established by that article of the treaty of Antalcidas,—which invested it with the power of seeing the conditions fulfilled. The stipulated freedom of the Grecian cities was but an apparant disadvantage; and now that the Asiatic colonies were given up, the contest for power in Greece itself must be decided by land,

* "The narrative of this concluding scene, as it is given by Plato in his dialogue entitled *Phædon*, is one of the noblest specimens of simple, eloquent, and pathetic description which is anywhere to be met with—a narrative to the force of which Cicero bears this strong testimony, that he never could read it without tears."

and not by sea. Under the treaty, the Spartans established political agents in all the principal states. The natural consequence of this policy was to excite and maintain in all of them two separate factions; the one the patriotic supporters of liberty and independence, and the other the mean slaves of the Lacedæmonian interest. The quarrels with Mantinea and Philius, and still more so her paricipation in those between the Macedo-Greek cities and the powerful Olynthus,* prove too plainly the arrogance with which Sparta behaved to the weaker states. But the arbitrary appropriation of the citadel of Thebes by Phœbidas—an act not indeed commanded, yet approved by Sparta—was attended with more serious consequences than were at first expected. Would that all authors of similar breaches of good faith and the law of nations were visited with the same vengeance!]

SECTION XXIV.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

Third Period—The Theban, Social, Phocian, and Locrian, or Sacred Wars, to the Battle of Chæronæa, 382—338 B. C.

1. *The Theban War (382).*—WHILE the two great republics of Greece (Athens and Sparta) were thus visibly tending to decline, the Theban republic emerged from obscurity, and rose for a time to a degree of splendour eclipsing all its contemporary states. The republic was divided by faction,—one party supporting its ancient democracy, and the other aiming at the establishment of an oligarchy. [The Spartans favoured the latter party; and Phœbidas, when conducting reinforcements through the Theban territory against Olynthus, in concert with them, entered Thebes on the day of a festival in honour of Ceres, and treacherously took possession of the citadel (382). Ismenius, the leader of the democratic party, and first magistrate of the city, was seized, and sent to Sparta, where he was tried, condemned, and executed for treason.] Four hundred of the exiled Thebans fled for protection to Athens. Among these was Pelopidas, who planned and accomplished the deliverance of his country. Disguising himself, and twelve of his friends, as peasants, he entered Thebes in the evening; and joining a patriotic party of the citizens, they surprised the heads of the

* Olynthus was a rich and prosperous city of Chalcidice, in Macedonia, which formed a league with all the neighbouring cities trading with it, for their mutual protection by sea and land. Sparta became jealous, and under pretence that the confederacy was an infraction of the late treaty of peace, determined to crush it before it became formidable. Two thousand troops were sent against Olynthus at once, until a larger force could be collected, which afterwards followed, under Phœbidas, who, in place of proceeding as ordered, occupied Thebes. Olynthus resisted the Spartans for several years.

usurpation amid the tumult of a feast, and put them all to death. Epaminondas, the friend of Pelopidas, shared with him in the glory of this enterprise; and attacking, with the aid of 5,000 Athenians, the Lacedæmonian garrison, drove them entirely out of the Theban territory: and Pelopidas and Epaminondas were hailed as the deliverers of their country, 380 B. C.

2. A war necessarily ensued between Thebes and Sparta, in which the former had the aid of Athens. This, however, was but for a season. Thebes singly opposed the power of Sparta, and the league of Greece; but Epaminondas and Pelopidas were her generals. The latter, amidst a career of glory, perished in an expedition against the tyrant of Phææa. Epaminondas, triumphant at Leuctra and Mantinea, fell in that last engagement; and with him expired the glory of his country, 363 B. C. The ancient historians have ranked Epaminondas among the greatest heroes and most illustrious characters of antiquity. Athens and Sparta were humbled at the battle of Mantinea. Thebes was victorious; but she was undone by the death of Epaminondas. All parties were tired of the war; and Artaxerxes II., more powerful among those infatuated states than in his own dominions, dictated the terms of the treaty. It was stipulated that each power should retain what it possessed; and that the lesser states, now free from the yoke of the greater, should remain so. The Spartans alone refused their assent to this treaty, because they were unwilling to relinquish that control which they had exercised over some of their tributary cities.

3. [*The Social War*, 357—355 B. C.—The situation of Greece, after the Theban war, seems to have been thus far changed, that no state had the preponderance—an independence proceeding from enervation. Even Athens, which, by means of her naval power, still preserved her influence over the cities on the coast and in the islands, lost the greater part in the war which her tyranny and rapacity forced them into. The weaker states complained of the excessive tribute exacted of them; but the islands of Chios, Cos, and Rhodes, together with the city of Byzantium, prepared openly to revolt, and entered into a league for their mutual protection (358). Chares was sent to reduce the insurgents, but was unsuccessful in the siege of Chios; before which, Chabris, their ablest general, was killed. The confederates, encouraged by this success, began to assume the offensive, and to ravage the islands that remained faithful to Athens. Another armament was sent to check their progress, under the command of Chares, Timotheus, and Iphicrates, but without success. Chares falsely accused his colleagues of treachery and cowardice, which led to their recall and banishment. Chares, then uncontrolled, wholly neglected the commission with which he had been intrusted, and hired himself and his troops to Artabuzus, satrap of Asia Minor, then in rebellion against Ar-

taxerxes Ochus, king of Persia. Ochus threatened the Athenians with his resentment, unless they immediately recalled their forces from the East; and with this mandate the enfeebled republicans were forced to comply, and to acknowledge the independence of the confederates, which terminated what is called the Social War, 355 B.C.

4. [Sparta, Thebes, and Athens, having successively lost their supremacy, the Amphictyonic council, which for more than a century had ceased to possess any authority, now began to exercise an important influence in the affairs of Greece. In place, however, of endeavouring to maintain peace, after so long a series of internal wars, and at a time when the growing power of Philip of Macedon required the union of all the states of Greece, the council abused its authority by kindling discord. It imposed a heavy fine on the Spartans for their former treacherous occupation of the citadel of Thebes; and on the Phocians, for ploughing up lands which belonged to the temple of Apollo, at Delphi. The Phocians refused to submit to that decision; and claimed that the custody of the temple, and all its patrimony, belonged of right to them. They then seized the treasures of the temple, and employed them in raising an army to resist the authority of the Amphictyons.

5. [*The Phocian, or First Sacred War*, 357—346 B.C.—This conduct of the Phocians, being considered sacrilegious, and an insult to the national religion, by most of the states of Greece, was the occasion of another civil war, of ten years' duration, which is known by the name of the Phocian, or First Sacred War. The hatred of the Thebans, who sought for new opportunities of quarrel with Sparta, and the ambition of the Phocian Philomelus, were probably the real causes of the war. The Thebans and Locrians, under pretence of being the executors of the Amphictyonic decrees, were the first to commence the war, which was remarkable for the sanguinary policy adopted on both sides, of giving no quarter in battle, and putting to death their prisoners without mercy. The Phocian general, Philomelus, was himself reduced to the necessity of leaping over a precipice, to escape falling alive into the hands of the enemy (353). He was succeeded by his brother, Onomarchus, who proved himself an able general, and committed fearful ravages in Bœotia and Locris. The Thebans, in their distress, solicited the aid of Philip of Macedon, who had long desired a pretext for interfering in the affairs of Greece. He immediately marched an army into Thessaly, and defeated Phyllus, the brother of Onomarchus, who had been sent to the assistance of the Thessalians. Onomarchus then advanced with his whole army to oppose him, when he was defeated and killed, together with the greater part of his army (352). Philip then became master of Thessaly, and marched his troops towards Thermopylæ, in order to enter the country of Phocis; but the Athenians, alarmed at his advance,

despatched a strong force to occupy that important pass, to which they were induced by the eloquence of Demosthenes, who, on that occasion, made the first display of his great talents. He persuaded the Athenians that the intentions of Philip were to gain a footing in Greece, more than to punish the Phocians, or put an end to the war. Philip, disconcerted at this unexpected opposition from the Athenians, withdrew his troops, to avoid hazarding a premature discovery of his designs, and bribed their orators and public men to allay the popular distrust. The Athenians, imposed on by his politic conduct, began to doubt the correctness of their suspicions, and, in their anxiety to terminate a war which had already continued ten years, sent ambassadors to request his assistance in negotiating a general peace. Philip undertook the office, but intrigued, to create delay; and, on the Athenians withdrawing their troops from Thermopylæ, marched his army into Phocis, carried all before him, and reduced the inhabitants to absolute submission. He placed garrisons in the towns that voluntarily submitted; destroyed those that resisted; and reduced the people to slavery. He then summoned the Amphictyonic council, and only admitted those that were in his interest. By their decree, the Phocians were deprived of their double voice in the council, which was given to Macedon; the people were forbidden to inhabit any but villages of a limited number of houses; ordered to pay a yearly tribute of sixty talents; and prohibited the use of horses or arms, or to enter the temple of Apollo, until they had repaid the money sacrilegiously taken from it. Philip was appointed to see the decree carried into effect and observed. The arms of the Phocians were taken from them, broken, and burned. The other orders made for settling the civil and religious affairs of Greece were executed with exactness and moderation—Philip paying the most profound respect to the council. Before returning into Macedonia, he secured the important pass of Thermopylæ by garrisoning Nice, and then peacefully withdrew with his army, which gained him great reputation for moderation. By his artful policy, Philip had obtained the incorporation of Macedonia with the states of Greece, which secured to him, for the future, the right to intermeddle in the national disputes.

6. [The Athenians were incessantly urged by Demosthenes to prepare to make a vigorous effort for the preservation of Grecian freedom, against which he asserted the designs of Philip were directed. This council was opposed by Phocion and other eminent patriots, who represented the low condition of the finances, and the corruption of manners which had taken place. They advised that hostilities should be avoided with so powerful a prince as Philip had become; but the latter having taken several places in Thrace which were dependent on Athens, and extended his authority over the cities of the *Chersonesus*, formerly in alliance with it, Demosthenes obtained

a decree to send a fleet to their relief. The Thebans joined in this expedition; and a league was formed with the islands of Rhodes, Cos, and Chios. The confederate fleet was commanded by Phocion, who delivered Byzantium, Perinthus, and other cities, from the Macedonian yoke, and drove Philip out of the Chersonesus. Philip complained of these acts of hostility; but still further to preserve a show of moderation, he entered into a negotiation for a renewal of peace, which he protracted for two years.

7. [*The Locrian, or Second Social War.*—In the meantime, Philip intrigued at Athens, to obtain the nomination of Æschines, who had long been in his pay, as the deputy to the Amphictyonic council. On taking his seat, Æschines accused the Locrians of Amphissa of sacrilege, in ploughing the fields of Cirrhea, that were consecrated to Apollo by the public and religious laws of Greece. The Locrians, notwithstanding the severity inflicted on the Phocians under a similar pretence, denied the authority of the council in that matter; when the Amphictyons decreed that Philip should have full power to act as he thought fit against them. Thus Philip acquired all that he sought; and having an army in readiness, he marched against Amphissa; took it by storm; and then seized on Elatea, the principal city of Phocia, and fortified it—which revealed his designs against the liberties of Greece. The Athenians, alarmed at this proceeding, sent Demosthenes to solicit the aid of the Thebans against their common enemy. When Philip heard of this confederacy, he determined to come to a decisive battle, before they could be joined by troops from the other Grecian states, and marched into Bœotia. The Macedonian army amounted to 30,000 foot, and 2,000 horse. That of the confederates was equally numerous, and the troops were exceedingly good; but they were commanded by incompetent generals; and when they encountered the Macedonians at Chæroneæ, they were completely defeated. Philip commanded one wing of his army; and his son, Alexander, the other. In this battle, Demosthenes, who had so vehemently urged the war, acted in the most cowardly manner, being the first to desert his post, and to consult his safety by flight—so different is speculative from active courage. The battle of Chæroneæ, fought 338 B. C., decided the fate of Greece, and subjected all her states to the dominion of the king of Macedon. But it was not his policy to treat them as a conquered people. They retained their separate and independent governments, while he controlled and directed all the national measures. Convoking a general council of the states at Corinth (337), Philip laid before the Amphictyons his project for the conquest of Persia, and obtained from them the appointment of commander-in-chief of the forces of Greece, with authority to fix the quota which each republic should furnish for the war.]

SECTION XXV.*

THE HISTORY OF MACEDON,

To the Death of Philip, 336 B. C.

1. [*Geographical Outline.*—MACEDONIA was bounded on the east by the *Ægean Sea*; on the south by *Thessaly* and *Epirus*; on the west by the *Ionian Sea*, or *Adriatic*; on the north, at first by the river *Strymon*, and the *Scardian* branch of *Mount Hæmus*, but afterwards by the river *Nessus*. In the most ancient times, this country was called *Æmathia*, from *Æmathius*, one of its princes, and was divided into a great many petty principalities.

2. An Hellenic colony from *Argos*, headed by *Caranus*, a descendant of *Hercules*, settled in *Æmathia*, and laid the foundation of the Macedonian empire, about 800 B. C. He is said to have been conducted to the city of *Ædessa* by a herd of goats, from which circumstance the figure of a goat was adopted for his standard, and became the national symbol, being represented on ancient coins with one horn. According to tradition, *Caranus* and his followers maintained their footing in the country, more by ingratiating themselves with the barbarous inhabitants, than by force of arms. There is no historian who wrote particularly on Macedon, before the time of *Alexander*; and consequently its early history is buried in obscurity, till the time of the Persian invasion of Greece.

3. The following Table of the Macedonian kings, from *Caranus* to *Alexander the Great*, is given by *Syncellus**:—

	B. C.	Years.		B. C.	Years.
<i>Caranus</i> , . . .	791	reigned 30	<i>Orestes</i> , . . .	397	reigned 3
<i>Coenus</i> , . . .	761	— 28	<i>Archelaus II.</i> , .	394	— 4
<i>Tyrimmas</i> , . .	733	— 45	<i>Amyntas II.</i> , .	390	— 1
<i>Perdiccas I.</i> , .	688	— 48	<i>Pausanias</i> , . .	389	— 1
<i>Argeus I.</i> , . .	640	— 32	<i>Amyntas III.</i> , .	388	— 5
<i>Philip I.</i> , . .	608	— 37	<i>Argeus II.</i> , . .	383	— 2
<i>Ajeropas</i> , . .	571	— 23	<i>Amyntas IV.</i> , .	381	— 12
<i>Alcetas</i> , . . .	548	— 28	<i>Alexander II.</i> , .	369	— 1
<i>Amyntas I.</i> , .	520	— 42	<i>Ptolemy</i> , . . .	368	— 3
<i>Alexander I.</i> , .	478	— 44	<i>Perdiccas III.</i> , .	365	— 6
<i>Perdiccas II.</i> , .	434	— 23	<i>Philip II.</i> , . .	359	— 23
<i>Archelaus I.</i> , .	411	— 14	<i>Alexander III.</i> , .	336	— 12

From *Caranus* to the death of *Alexander the Great*, 467 years.

4. When the Persians commenced their incursions into Europe, Macedonia, by its situation, must have been one of the

* In the Table given by *Eusebius*, the reign of *Caranus* commences in 799 B. C., and there is a considerable variation in the commencement and duration of many of the reigns; but the difference between the two chronologies is only eight years on the whole.

first countries they ravaged. Accordingly, as early as the reign of Darius Hystaspes, the Macedonian kings were tributary to the Persians; and were indebted to their deliverance from that yoke, not to their own valour, but to the victories of the Greeks. The battle of Platæa restored independence to the Macedonian kingdom, although that independence was not formally acknowledged by the Persians. But the Macedonians were still exposed to the attacks of other formidable neighbours: on one side there were the Thracians; and on the other, the Athenians; who, availing themselves of their extensive navy, reduced to subjection the Grecian settlements on the coast. The differences with Athens commenced in the reign of Perdiccas II., when his brother Philip was assisted in contesting the crown with him, which led him to take the part of Sparta in the Peloponnesian war. Archelaus, the son and successor of Perdiccas, introduced agriculture and civilization among the Macedonians. He constructed roads; built forts; and his court became the seat of literature. He was murdered by one of his courtiers; and his death was followed by a series of civil wars and sanguinary revolutions, which were terminated by the accession of Philip (son of Amyntas IV., and brother of Perdiccas III.), who escaped from Thebes, where he was a hostage, to gain possession of the throne, in 359 B. C.

5. Philip II. ascended the throne of Macedon by popular choice, to the exclusion of his nephew, then a minor; and he secured his power by the success of his arms against the Illyrians, Pæonians, and Athenians—who espoused the interest of his competitors. His reign, which lasted twenty-three years, is one of the most instructive and interesting in the whole range of history, as well on account of the prudence he displayed, as for the manner in which his plans were arranged and executed. Though it may be difficult to trace in his morals the pupil of the great Epaminondas; yet it is impossible to view, without feelings of astonishment, the brilliant career of a man who, under the almost hopeless circumstances in which he commenced his course, never lost his firmness of mind, and who, in the greatest prosperity, preserved his coolness of reflection.

6. At the commencement of his reign, he had to contend with victorious foes abroad, and with two pretenders to the throne at home; but in two years everything was changed, and the independence of his country secured. Having restored tranquillity to his kingdom, he next prepared for its security, by improving the tactics and military discipline of his subjects. The victories of Epaminondas at Leuctra and Mantinea had proved the superiority of a heavy column over the extended lines in which the Greeks usually fought; and, improving on that basis, he formed the celebrated Macedonian phalanx,* which secured victory over

* A square battalion of soldiers, formed in ranks close and deep, with their shields joined, and pikes crossing each other, so as to render it impossible to break it.

the barbarians; whilst he had recourse to other means than force (the produce of the Thracian gold mines) for success against the suspiciousness of Athens, and the neighbouring Greek settlements. It was in the conduct of these affairs that the peculiar sagacity of Philip was displayed.

7. The internal government of Macedon, under so skilful and successful a conqueror, must necessarily have been absolute. No pretender would dare to rise up against such a ruler; and the body-guard established by him at the beginning of his reign, and taken from the nobility, contributed to keep up a proper understanding between the prince and the nobles. The power of the kings was insignificant when unaided by them, among whom, as was the case with all the hereditary princes of Greece, they merely held the right of precedence. The court of Philip became a military staff; while the people, from a nation of herdsmen, were converted into a nation of warriors. After the conquest of Illyria, Thrace, Thessaly, and all the adjacent states, he at last succeeded in his ambitious desire of acquiring a complete ascendancy over all the Grecian republics, and the appointment to the command-in-chief of the armies of the confederation, which he proposed to direct against the Persian empire.]

8. At this period, the Persian monarchy had been divided by the revolt of many of the provinces; and Ochus had scarcely brought them into subjection, when he and all his family, except an infant son, were poisoned. He was succeeded by Darius, surnamed Codomannus, who is said to have been the grandson of Darius Nothus. Such was the state of Persia when Philip, on the eve of his great enterprise, was assassinated, while engaged in celebrating a magnificent festival on the marriage of his daughter, Cleopatra, with the king of Epirus (336 B. C.). The assassin was Pausanias, a noble youth and captain of his guards, who is said to have been influenced by private revenge; but it seems certain that his son (according to his letter in Arrian) attributed it to Persian influence. The Athenians, on the death of Philip, meanly expressed the most tumultuous joy, in the hope of a recovery of their liberty; but this visionary prospect was never realized. The spirit of the nation was gone; and in their subsequent revolutions, they only changed their masters.

SECTION XXVI.

THE HISTORY OF MACEDON.

The Reign of Alexander the Great.

1. ALEXANDER, the son of Philip, succeeded at the age of twenty to the throne of Macedon (B. C. 336). He had been educated by Aristotle, and his extraordinary natural endowments sedulously cultivated. This prince possessed military

abilities of the highest order; and had given proofs, from his earliest years, of that singular heroism which afterwards distinguished him. [On the death of his father, the Thracians, the Illyrians, and other nations, endeavoured to regain their independence; but they were quickly subdued, and never again attempted to revolt. The different states of Greece began to make vigorous preparations for their mutual defence; and the Thebans, on a false report of the death of Alexander in battle against the Illyrians, expelled the Macedonian garrison, and put to death its commanders. Within fourteen days, Alexander appeared before the walls of Thebes, and offered pardon to the city on condition of absolute submission, and the delivering up of all the principal offenders. The Thebans were obstinate; and, after a brief struggle, the city was taken by storm, abandoned to the fury of the soldiers, and then reduced to a heap of ruins. The conqueror spared the lives of those who were descended from Pindar, the priests and their families, and those who had shown attachment to the Macedonian interest; but of the rest of the inhabitants, 6,000 were put to the sword, and 30,000 sold into slavery (335 B.C.). This severity struck terror throughout Greece, and was followed by a general submission. Alexander then assembled the deputies of the nation at Corinth, and communicated to them his resolution of prosecuting the designs of his father for the conquest of Persia. The splendour of the expedition flattered the Greeks, who had ever regarded the Persians as their irreconcilable enemies, and in whose destruction they pleased themselves with the prospect of regaining the honourable ascendancy they had once enjoyed above all contemporary nations.]

2. In the spring of 334 B. C., with an army of 30,000 foot, and 5,000 horse, the sum of seventy talents, and provisions only for a single month, Alexander crossed the Hellespont; and, in traversing Phrygia, visited the tomb of Achilles. Darius Codomannus, resolved to crush at once this inconsiderate youth, met him on the banks of the Granicus with 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. The Greeks swam the river, their king leading the van, and attacking the astonished Persians, left 20,000 dead upon the field, and put to flight their whole army. The loss of the Greeks amounted only to 85 horsemen and 30 infantry. Drawing from his first success a presage of continued victory, Alexander now sent home his fleet, leaving to his army the sole alternative, that they must subdue Asia or perish. Prosecuting their course for some time without resistance, the Greeks were attacked by the Persians in a narrow valley of Cilicia, near the town of Issus. The Persian host amounted to 400,000; but their situation was such that only a small part could come into action, and they were defeated with prodigious slaughter (333 B. C.). The loss of the Persians in this battle was 110,000; that of the Greeks (according to Q. Curtius), only 450.

3. The history of Alexander by Quintus Curtius, though a

most elegant composition, is extremely suspicious on the score of authentic information. Arrian is the best authority.

4. The generosity of Alexander was displayed after the battle of Issus, in his attention to his noble prisoners, the mother, the wife, and family of Darius—a conduct which made a deep impression on the mind of that generous and ill-fated prince. To the credit of Alexander, it must be owned that humanity, however overpowered and at times extinguished in the heat of his passions, certainly formed a part of his natural character.

5. The consequence of the battle of Issus was the submission of all Syria. Damascus, where Darius had deposited his chief treasures, was betrayed and given up by its governor. The Phœnicians were pleased to see themselves thus avenged for the oppression they had suffered under the yoke of Persia.

6. Alexander had hitherto borne his good fortune with moderation: “Felix,” says Curtius, “si hac continentia ad ultimum vitæ perseverare potuisset; sed nondum Fortuna se animo ejus infuderat.” He directed his course towards Tyre, and desired admittance to perform a sacrifice to Hercules. The Tyrians sent him a golden crown as a token of their respect and amity, but refused his request, and shut their gates. They maintained for seven months a noble defence. The city was at length taken by storm; and the victor, incensed at the opposition he had met with, and the losses his army had sustained, forgot his usual clemency, and ordered the city to be plundered and burned. Many of the inhabitants fled to Carthage by sea; but of those that remained, 8,000 were put to the sword, 2,000 were crucified, and 13,000 sold into slavery (B.C. 332). The fate of Gaza, gloriously defended by Bætis, was equally deplorable to its citizens, and more disgraceful to the conqueror. Having been wounded during the siege, and irritated at the courageous defence that had been made, he caused 10,000 of the citizens to be put to death, and the rest to be sold into slavery. The valiant commander he caused to be bound to his chariot, with thongs thrust through the soles of his feet, and in this manner dragged with horses round the city: * “Gloriante rege, Achillem, a quo genus ipse deduceret, imitatum se esse, pœna in hostem capienda.”—Curtius, iv. 17—19.

7. The taking of Gaza opened Egypt to Alexander; and the whole country submitted without opposition. Amidst the most incredible fatigues, he now led his army through the deserts of Lybia, to visit the temple of his pretended father, Jupiter Ammon. On his return he built Alexandria, at the mouth of the Nile—a situation so happily chosen, that in twenty years it rose to great

* “By so base an act of cruelty, this Greek, the disciple of Aristotle, the diligent reader of Homer, boasted that he imitated Achilles, from whom, he would have it, he was himself descended. Yet Achilles, in an age far more barbarous, drew only the dead body of Hector round Troy; but Alexander abused, in this shocking manner, a brave officer, wounded, and still living, whose fidelity to his king was his only crime.”—Jahn.

wealth and consequence, and afterwards became the capital of Lower Egypt, and has ever since been one of the most flourishing cities in the world. Twenty other cities of the same name were reared by him in the course of his conquests. It is such works as these that justly entitle the Macedonian to the epithet of Great. By rearing in the midst of deserts those nurseries of population and of industry, he repaired the waste and havoc of his conquests. But for those monuments of his real glory, he would have merited from posterity no other epithet than that assigned him by the Brahmins of India, "The Mighty Murderer."

8. Returning from Egypt, Alexander traversed Assyria, and was met at Arbela by Darius, at the head of 700,000 men. The Persian had proffered peace, consenting to yield the whole country from the Euphrates to the Hellespont; to give Alexander his daughter in marriage, and the immense sum of 10,000 talents. But these terms were haughtily rejected, and peace refused, but upon the unqualified submission of his enemy. The Macedonian army did not exceed 40,000 men. The Persians were defeated at Arbela (B. C. 331), with the loss of 300,000 men, while the loss of the Macedonians is estimated by Arrian at not more than 1,200. Darius fled from province to province. At length, betrayed by Bessus, satrap of Bactria, and commander of the cavalry, he was cruelly murdered; and the Persian empire, which had subsisted for 206 years from the time of Cyrus the Great, submitted to the conqueror, 330 B. C.

9. Alexander now projected the conquest of India, firmly persuaded that the gods had decreed him the sovereignty of the whole habitable globe. He penetrated to the Ganges, and would have advanced to the Eastern Ocean, had the spirit of his army kept pace with his ambition. But his troops, seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed. He returned to the Indus; from whence, sending round his fleet to the Persian Gulf under Nearchus, he marched his army across the desert to Persepolis; during which three-fourths of his men perished by the violence of the heat, and the want of water and provisions (325 B. C.). After recruiting his army, Alexander marched from Persepolis to Ecbatan, the capital of Media, where he favoured his soldiers with a season of repose. He then led his army to Babylon, and was so delighted with the splendour of that great city, that he declared his purpose of making it the capital of his empire.

10. Indignant that he had found a limit to his conquests, he abandoned himself to every excess of luxury and debauchery. The arrogance of his nature, and the ardour of his passions, heightened by continual intemperance, broke out into the most outrageous excesses of cruelty; for which, in the few intervals of sober reflection, his ingenuous mind suffered the keenest remorse. He died at Babylon, April 21, 323 B. C., in the thirty-third year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign. [He is said to have died in a fit of debauch; but, according to Arrian, whom it is safest to follow, of a violent fever, probably brought on by the hard-

ships he had undergone, and the impure air to which he exposed himself in cleaning the canals about Babylon. His body was embalmed; and, after two years, it was conveyed to Egypt with great pomp, where it was interred, first at Memphis, and afterwards at Alexandria. The sarcophagus in which the body was deposited is now in the British Museum.]

11. Of the character of Alexander, the most opposite and contradictory estimates have been formed. While by some he is esteemed nothing better than a fortunate madman, he is by others celebrated for the grandeur, wisdom, and solidity of his political views. Truth is rarely to be found in extreme censure or applause. We may allow to Alexander the spirit and the talents of a great military genius, without combining with these the sober plans of a profound politician. His great object seems to have been the establishment of one great and permanent empire, of which the different parts would be united by mutual political and commercial advantages; and for this purpose he sought to do away with all national prejudices. But his early death frustrated all these great projects, and the ambition of his generals overturned the fabric he was erecting. In a moral view of his character, we see an excellent and ingenuous nature corrupted at length by an unvarying current of success; and a striking example of the fatal violence of the passions, when eminence of fortune removes all restraint, and flattery stimulates to their uncontrolled indulgence.

12. ["After the abandonment of India, the whole circuit of his conquests was precisely that of the former Persian empire. However easy it had been to make these conquests, it was a more difficult task to retain them; for Macedonia, exhausted by continual levies of men, could not furnish efficient garrisons. Alexander removed this difficulty, by protecting the conquered from oppression; by leaving the civil government in the hands of the native rulers, who had hitherto possessed it; and by confiding to Macedonians the command only of the garrisons left in the chief places, and in the newly established colonies. To alter as little as possible the internal organization of countries was his fundamental principle. Babylon was to be the capital of his empire; and the union of the east and the west was to be brought about by the amalgamation of the dominant races by intermarriage, by education, and by commerce. In nothing, probably, is the superiority of his genius more brilliantly displayed, than in his exemption from all national prejudice, particularly when we consider that none of his countrymen were in this respect to be compared with him. To refuse him this merit is impossible, whatever judgment may be formed of his general character. His sudden death, under the peculiar circumstances of the time, was the greatest loss mankind could experience. From Indus to the Nile, the world lay in ruins; and where was the architect to be found that could gather up the scattered fragments, and restore the edifice?"—*Heeren.*]

SECTION XXVII.

Successors of Alexander—Macedon and Greece—Thrace—Thessalica—The Ptolemies, 323—30 B. C.

1. ALEXANDER, on his death-bed, named no successor, but gave his ring to Perdiccas, one of his officers. When his courtiers asked him to whom he wished the empire to devolve upon at his death, he replied, "To the most worthy;" and he is said to have added, that he foresaw this legacy would prepare for him very extraordinary funeral rites: a prediction which was fully verified. Shortly after his death, his queen Roxana gave birth to a son, who was named Alexander; and he also left by Barsine, the widow of Memnon of Rhodes, a son named Hercules. The other members of the royal family were—his mother, Olympias; his wife, Statira, the daughter of Darius; his sister, Cleopatra; a half-brother, Arrhidæus, who was of weak mind; a half-sister, Thessalonice; and a cousin, Eurydice, a daughter of Cyane, the sister of his father Philip.

2. [Arrhidæus, and the infant Alexander, were raised to the throne. This settlement of the empire jointly upon a weak man and an infant was the result of the jealousy of the principal officers, who could not agree upon the choice of any one of themselves. Those of moderate ambition would have been contented with the sovereignty of some of the provinces; while others aimed at undivided empire. Among the latter was Perdiccas, who, from the circumstance of receiving the ring of Alexander, was appointed guardian and regent to the two kings.] Sensible that his pretensions would not justify a direct assumption of the government of this vast empire, he brought about a division of the whole among thirty-three of the principal officers; to each of whom he assigned the charge of a province;* and to himself he reserved the commander-in-chiefship of the army: trusting to their inevitable dissensions, he proposed by that means to reduce all of them under his own authority. Hence arose a series of wars and intrigues, of which the detail is barren both of amusement and useful information. It is sufficient to say, that their consequence was a total extirpation of the family of Alexander, and a new partition of the empire into four great monarchies, after the battle of Ipsus, in Phrygia, in which the powerful An-

* Of those who took a principal part in subsequent events—

OBTAINED			OBTAINED		
Ptoimey Lagus,	Egypt and Africa.		Lysimachus,	Thrace.	
Antigonus,	{ Pamphilia, Lycia, and		Eumenes,	{ Paphlagonia and Cappa-	
Cassander,	{ Greater Phrygia.			{ docia.	
	Caria.		Neoptolemus,	Armenia.	
Leonatus,	{ Lesser Phrygia, or the		Seleucus,	Babylon.	
	{ country round the		Antipater, and		
	{ Hellespont.		on his death		
Peucestes,	Persia.		his son Cas-		
Laomedon,	Syria and Palestine.		sander,		
Pytho,	Media.				

} Macedonia and Greece.

tionus was defeated and slain, 301 B. C.: Macedon, with a part of Greece; Thrace; Egypt, with Cyrene and Cyprus; and Syria, with all Upper Asia; the shares of Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus: of these the most powerful were that of Syria, under Seleucus and his descendants; and that of Egypt, under the Ptolemies.

3. [*Macedonia and Greece.*—Cassander, son of Antipater, (the murderer of Roxana and the young Alexander, in the thirteenth year of his age, 311), survived the establishment of his throne, by the battle of Ipsus, only three years; and bequeathed Macedonia, as an inheritance, to his three sons—the eldest of whom, shortly after, followed him to the grave. The survivors, Antipater and Alexander, soon worked their own destruction. Antipater murdered his own mother, Thessalonice (half-sister of Alexander the Great), on account of the favour she showed his brother, and was obliged to fly for aid to his father-in-law, Lysimachus, of Thrace, where he soon after died. Meanwhile, Alexander, fancying he stood in need of foreign assistance, applied to Demetrius, who obeyed the call, and afterwards murdered him, when the race of Antipater became extinct. The army then proclaimed Demetrius Poliocertes king; and in his person the house of Antigonus ascended the throne of Macedonia, and his descendants maintained their power until Perseus was defeated by the Romans in the battle of Pynda (168), taken prisoner at Samothrace, and led in chains to Rome to adorn the triumph of his haughty conqueror, Æmilius Paulus, where he died, in 166. According to the system at that period followed at Rome, the conquered kingdom was allowed to enjoy a nominal independence, until 148, when it was constituted a Roman province.

4. *Thrace*—Did not long remain a separate kingdom. In 299, Lysimachus married Arsinoe, a daughter of Ptolemy; and his son, Agathocles, another daughter of the same king. Their brother, Ceraunus, having been excluded from the throne of Egypt, fled to the court of Lysimachus, where he enkindled a quarrel between his sisters, to which Agathocles fell a sacrifice, 283. He then fled with his widowed sister to Antioch, and excited Seleucus to a war against Lysimachus. At Curopedion, in Phrygia, Seleucus gave battle to Lysimachus, when the latter was slain, 282. Thrace, and the provinces in Asia Minor, then became a part of the Syrian kingdom; but, in the following year, as Seleucus was crossing over into Europe to add Macedonia to his dominions, he was murdered by Ceraunus, who obtained the treasures of his victim, and with the remaining troops of Lysimachus succeeded in usurping the thrones of Macedon and Thrace. Ceraunus did not long retain the crowns he had procured by treachery and assassination. An innumerable number of Gauls, who had, about two centuries before, settled in Pannonia, poured down on Thrace and Macedon, desolating the country with savage ferocity. He led an army against them, but was

defeated and slain (279). In the following year, his successor, Sosthenes, met the same fate, and the Gauls advanced into southern Greece, from whence they were driven, but made a settlement in Thrace, which was permanently separated from Macedon.

5. *Syrian Empire*.—After the death of Antigonus at Ipsus, the greater part of Asia—in all, seventy-two satrapies, fell to the share of Seleucus. He was one of the few followers of Alexander who had a genius for the arts of peace as well as of war. During the eighteen years of tranquillity that he secured to Asia, he founded or embellished a vast number of cities, to make up for the ravages of war—among which were reckoned sixteen of the name of Antiochia; nine of Seleucia; five of Laodicea; four of Apamea; and one of Stratonica. Antiochia, or Antioch, on the Orontes, in Syria, was the residence of the future kings, and afterwards of the Roman governors. The era of the Seleucidæ commences with the first conquest of Babylon by Seleucus, October, 312. This era continued in general use for civil contracts throughout the east until within the last 400 years, and is still in use by the Arabs.

6. *Genealogical Table of the Seleucidæ*.—

	B.C.		B.C.
Seleucus, <i>Nicator</i> , . . .	312	Alexander, <i>Balas</i> , . . .	150
Antiochus I., <i>Soter</i> , . . .	280	Demetrius II., <i>Nicator</i> , . .	150
Antiochus II., <i>Theos</i> , . . .	260	Antiochus VI., <i>Sidetes</i> , . .	137
Seleucus, <i>Callinicus</i> , . . .	245	Demetrius II., <i>Nicator</i> (restd.)	129
Seleucus, <i>Ceraunus</i> , . . .	225	Zebina,	
Antiochus III., <i>The Great</i> , .	223	Antiochus VII., <i>Grypus</i> , . .	125
Seleucus, <i>Philopater</i> , . . .	187	Seleucus,	96
Antiochus IV., <i>Epiphanes</i> , .	175	Philip,	92
Antiochus V., <i>Eupator</i> , . .	164	Tigranes (of Armenia), . .	83
Demetrius I., <i>Soter</i> , . . .	162	Antiochus VIII., <i>Asiaticus</i> ,	69

Asiaticus expelled by Pompey, 65; Syria, a Roman province, 62.

7. The successors of Seleucus were almost constantly engaged in suppressing internal insurrections, or in carrying on external wars—a sure indication that the administration of government was conducted in an arbitrary and oppressive manner. The history of these wars divides itself into the periods before and after the war with Rome, which commenced in 198, on Antiochus the Great refusing to abandon his conquests in Greece and Asia Minor. After various defeats, Antiochus was at last obliged to sue for peace, which was granted on condition of relinquishing all his possessions west of the Taurus, and to pay the expenses of the war. The succeeding history of the Seleucidæ is an uninteresting picture of civil wars, family feuds, and deeds of horror, such as are scarcely to be paralleled in the annals of any people. On the death of Antiochus *Asiaticus*, and his brother Seleucus *Cybiosastes*, who was murdered by his wife Berenice, queen of Egypt, the race of the Seleucidæ became extinct, 57 B.C.

8. *Egypt*.—Ptolemy I., surnamed Soter, the son of Lagus, received Egypt for his share, at the first partition, after the death of Alexander. Aware of the importance of his province, he was the only one of Alexander's successors that had the moderation not to aim at all. He was frequently embroiled in their quarrels, but his conduct was so cautious, that Egypt was never endangered. He extended his authority over Phœnicia, Judæa, Cœlo-Syria, and Cyprus, which continued subject to his successors until conquered by Antiochus the Great (203). The regeneration of Egypt from the ruin into which it had been plunged was the consequence of the permanent tranquillity during nearly thirty years—the duration of the reign of this wise and beneficent ruler. Though a soldier by profession, he had a genius for all the arts of peace, which he fostered with royal liberality. He revived, as much as circumstances would permit, the ancient religious and political constitution of the kingdom, and increased its subdivisions to lessen the political power of the officers appointed over them. But what more than anything else distinguished Ptolemy from his contemporaries, was his regard for the interests of science. He founded a museum at Alexandria, as a kind of university for students, and a place of assembly for the learned. He also there established the library, which afterwards became so famous for the extent and value of the works which it contained; and he invited the philosophers and men of letters of all other countries to seek shelter with him in that period of violence. In 285 B.C., Ptolemy abdicated the throne in favour of his younger son, Philadelphus, that the elder might be excluded, and died in 284. The evil disposition of Ceraunus soon manifested itself, and proved that his father had not superseded him without reason. (See § 4, above.)

9. *Genealogical Table of the Ptolemies*.—

	B.C.		B.C.
Ptolemy I., <i>Soter</i> , . . .	323	Ptolemy VII., <i>Physcon</i> , . .	145
Ptolemy II., <i>Philadelphus</i> , . .	284	Ptolemy VIII., <i>Lathyrus</i> , . .	116
Ptolemy III., <i>Evergetes</i> , . .	246	Ptolemy IX., <i>Alexander</i> , . .	80
Ptolemy IV., <i>Philopator</i> , . .	221	Ptolemy X., <i>Auletes</i> , . . .	65
Ptolemy V., <i>Epiphanes</i> , . .	204	Cleopatra,	51
Ptolemy VI., <i>Philometor</i> , . .	181		

10. The reign of Philadelphus was even more peaceful than that of his father, whose spirit seemed to inspire him in every thing, except as a warrior, and the purity of domestic life. He promoted the arts of peace, trade, and science, with great energy, and formed that connection with Rome which afterwards decided the fate of Egypt. In his reign the court was first thrown open to that effeminate luxury which soon wrought the destruction of the Ptolemies, as it had previously done of the Seleucidæ. He introduced the pernicious practice of inter-marriages in the same family, by which the royal blood was more foully contaminated even than in Syria. He repudiated

Arsinoë, the daughter of Lysimachus, and then married his own sister, likewise named Arsinoë. She brought him no children, but she adopted the children of her predecessor. His successor united the character of a warrior with that genius for the arts of peace peculiar to his family. His wars were undertaken more for the protection of commerce than the extension of territory. Egypt was singularly fortunate in having three great kings, whose reigns filled one whole century. A change now ensued. Philopater was a debauchee and a tyrant, from which time the kingdom rapidly declined. Auletes, the last king, endeavoured to ensure the kingdom to his posterity by nominating, as his successors, his two elder children, Ptolemy *Dionysas*, then thirteen years old, and Cleopatra, seventeen, who were to be united in marriage—the Romans being left the superintendence and the guardianship of his two younger children. The too-celebrated Cleopatra set aside the claims of her brothers and sister by the influence which she acquired over Julius Cæsar, and afterwards with Mark Antony. She induced the latter to repudiate his wife, Octavia, the sister of Octavius (Augustus), which led to the battle of Actium (31); and afterwards, not brooking to be dragged a prisoner to Rome, she followed the example of her lover, and procured her own death (30 B.C.). Even in this last period, Egypt appears to have been the seat of unbounded wealth, which is accounted for from the political revolutions scarcely ever extending beyond the walls of Alexandria. Egypt was then the only great theatre of trade; and, so far from its trade declining when it became a Roman province, it increased in the same proportion as the spirit of luxury increased in Rome, and in the Roman empire.

11. Besides the three main empires into which the monarchy of Alexander was divided, there likewise arose several branch kingdoms. To these belong the kingdoms of—1, Pergamus; 2, Bithynia; 3, Paphlagonia; 4, Pontus; 5, Cappadocia; 6, Great Armenia; 7, Little Armenia; 8, Bactria; 9, Jewish states, subsequent to the Maccabees.

The limits of this work will only admit of a separate notice of the Jewish states; but attention will however be drawn to the others, when they are brought into connection with the Romans.]

SECTION XXVIII.

FALL AND CONQUEST OF GREECE.

1. THE history of Greece, from the period of the death of Alexander, is no longer an interesting or pleasing object of contemplation. Demosthenes *once more* made a noble attempt to vindicate the national freedom, and to rouse his countrymen, the

Athenians, to shake off the yoke of Macedon.* But it was too late. The pacific councils of Phocion suited better the languid spirit of this once illustrious people.

2. The history of the different republics present from this time nothing but a disgusting series of uninteresting revolutions; with the exception only of that last effort made by the Achæan states to revive the expiring liberty of their country (280). The republic of Achaia was a league of the smaller states (Dymæ, Patræ, Pharæ, Tritæa, and others), to vindicate their freedom against the domineering spirit of the greater. They committed the government of the league to Aratus of Sicyon, with the title of Prætor, a young man of great powers of mind and of high ambition, who immediately conceived the more extensive project of rescuing the whole of Greece from the dominion of Macedon. In the first year of his office he expelled the Macedonian garrison from Corinth, when Megara, Træzene, and Epidaurus, joined the league. But the jealousy of the greater states rendered his efforts abortive. Sparta refused to range herself under the guidance of the prætor of Achaia; and Aratus, forgetting his patriotic designs, sought only now to wreak his vengeance against the Lacedæmonians. For this purpose, with the most inconsistent policy, he courted the aid even of the Macedonians; the very tyrants who had enslaved his country.

* *The Lamian War.*—Immediately on the death of Alexander, the enthusiasm of the Greeks in the cause of freedom was fanned into a flame by the democratic party at Athens. Urged by Demosthenes and Hyperides, almost all the states of central and northern Greece, Boeotia excepted, took up arms in the cause, and their example was quickly followed by most of those in Peloponnesus, with the exception of Sparta, Argos, Corinth, and Achæaus. Not even the Persian war produced such general unanimity! The gallant Leosthenes headed the league. The Macedonian army, under Antipater, was defeated and shut up in Lamia; but, after the death of Leosthenes, and the arrival of reinforcements to Antipater, the Greeks were finally overwhelmed. Most of the cities opened their gates to the Macedonians; besides this, Athens was obliged to purchase peace through the mediation of Phocion and Demades, by an alteration in her constitution—the poorer citizens being excluded from all share in the government, and for the most part translated into Thrace. The Athenians were further compelled to defray the expenses of the war; and, finally, to deliver up Demosthenes, who, foreseeing inevitable death, poisoned himself, 322 B. C.

The dissensions among the Macedonian generals soon led to a renewal of war in Greece (318). The newly established government at Athens was overturned, and its partizans put to death, among these the old and venerable Phocion. Cassander obliged the nobles to elect one of their own number to preside as a governor under him. They chose Demetrius Phalereus, a descendant of Conon, and a man of distinguished virtue and ability. Under his administration, which continued for ten years, the Athenians were truly happy—abuses were removed—the strictest attention paid to the administration of justice—the revenue increased, and the useful arts encouraged. The population of Athens then consisted of 127,660 free inhabitants, and 400,000 slaves. Phalereus was expelled in 307, by Demetrius Poliorcetes, who restored the democracy.

3. The period was now come for the intervention of a foreign power, which was to reduce all under its wide-spreading dominion. The Romans were at this time the most powerful of all the contemporary nations. The people of *Ætolia*, attacked by the Macedonians, with a rash policy, besought the aid of the Romans, who, eager to add to their dominion this devoted country, cheerfully obeyed the summons, and speedily accomplished the reduction of Macedonia.* Perseus, its last sovereign, was led captive to Rome, and graced the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, 167 B. C. From that period, the Romans were hastily advancing to the dominion of all Greece; a progress, in which their art was more conspicuous than their virtue. They gained their end by fostering dissensions between the states, which they directed to their own advantage; corrupting their principal citizens, and using, in fine, every art of the most insidious policy. A pretext was only wanting to unsheath the sword; and this was furnished by the *Æchæan* states, who insulted the deputies of imperial Rome. This drew on them at once the thunder of the Roman arms: Metellus marched his legions into Greece, gave them battle, and entirely defeated them. Mummius, the consul, terminated the work, and made an easy conquest of the whole of Greece, which from that period became a Roman province, under the name of *Achaia*, 146 B. C.

4. Rome had acquired from her conquests a flood of wealth, and began now to manifest a taste for luxury and a spirit of refinement. In these points Greece was to her conquerors an instructor and a model:—

* Philip of Macedon had entered into an alliance with Hannibal, in which reciprocal aid was promised towards annihilating Rome. Immediately this alliance became known, the Romans stationed a squadron, with troops on board, off the coast of Macedon, by which the king himself was defeated at Apollonia (214). They then encouraged the *Ætolians* and other states, to give him employment until it would be convenient for them to attack him, and even brought about a general peace in 204; but, after the defeat of Hannibal at Zama, and the humiliation of Carthage (201) the Romans prepared to carry the war against Philip. A Roman army was sent to Greece in 200, which made little progress for the first two years, until Flaminius invoked the magic spell of freedom, which so intoxicated the Greeks, that Philip was stripped of his allies, and the battle of Cynoscephale decided everything (197). The conditions of the peace that followed were—1, That all Grecian cities in Europe and Asia should be independent, and that Philip should withdraw his garrisons; 2, That he should surrender the whole of his navy, and never afterwards keep more than 500 armed men on foot; 3, That he should not, without previously informing Rome, undertake any war out of Macedon; 4, That he should pay 1,000 talents, by instalments, and deliver his younger son, Demetrius, as a hostage.

The freedom of Greece was soon after solemnly proclaimed at the Isthmian games by Flaminius (196); but, loud as the Greeks were in their exultations, this measure served merely to transfer the supremacy of their country from Macedon to Rome; and Grecian history, as well as the Macedonian, is now interwoven with that of the Romans.

Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit, et artes
Intulit agresti Latio.—

Hence, even though vanquished, she was regarded with a species of respect, by her ruder masters.

SECTION XXIX.

POLITICAL REFLECTIONS ARISING FROM THE HISTORY OF THE STATES OF GREECE.

1. THE revolutions which the states of Greece underwent, and the situations into which they were thrown by their alternate connection and differences with each other, and their wars with foreign nations, were so various, that their history is a school of instruction in political science: as there is scarce a doctrine in that important science which may not find an example or an illustration from their history. The surest test of the truth or falsehood of abstract principles of politics, is their application to actual experience and to the history of nations.

2. The oppression which the states of Greece suffered under their ancient despots, a set of tyrants who owed their elevation to violence, and whose rule was subject to no control, or constitutional restraints, was assuredly a most justifiable motive for their establishing a new form of government, which promised them the enjoyment of greater political freedom. We believe, too, that those new forms of government were framed by their virtuous legislators in the true spirit of patriotism. But as to the real merits of those political fabrics, it is certain that they were very far from corresponding in practice with what was expected from them in theory. We seek in vain, either in the history of Athens or Lacedæmon, for the beautiful idea of a well-ordered commonwealth. The revolutions of government which they were ever experiencing, the eternal factions with which they were embroiled, plainly demonstrate that there was a radical defect in the structure of the machine, which precluded the possibility of regular motion. The condition of the people under those governments was such as partook more of servitude and oppression than that of the subjects of the most despotic monarchies. The slaves formed the actual majority of the inhabitants in all the states of Greece. To these, the free citizens behaved with the most inhuman rigour: nor were they more inclined to a humane and liberal conduct to those of their own condition, from bondage being a consequence of the contraction of debts even by a free man. Thus a great proportion even of the free citizens were actually subject to the tyrannical control of their fellow-citizens. Nor were their richer classes in the actual enjoyment of a rational liberty and independence. They were perpetually divided into factions, which servilely ranked themselves under the banners of the contending chiefs of the republic; and these

maintained their influence over their partisans by the most shameful corruption and bribery, of which the means were supplied alone by the plunder of the public. The whole was, therefore, a system of servility and debasement of spirit, which left nothing of a free or ingenuous nature in the condition of individuals, nor anything that could furnish encomium to a real advocate for the dignity of human nature.

Such was the condition of the chief republics of antiquity. Their governments promised in theory what they never conferred in practice—the political happiness of the citizens.

3. "In democracy," says Dr Fergusson, "men must love equality; they must respect the rights of their fellow-citizens; they must be satisfied with that degree of consideration they can procure by their abilities fairly measured against those of an opponent; they must labour for the public without hope of profit; they must reject every attempt to create a personal dependence." This is the picture of a republic in theory. If we reverse this picture in every single particular, and take its direct opposite, we shall have the true portrait of a republican government in practice.

4. It is the fundamental theory of Montesquieu's *Spirit of Laws*, that the three distinct forms of government, the monarchical, despotical, and republican, are influenced by the three separate principles of honour, fear, and virtue; and this theory is the foundation on which the author builds a great part of his political doctrines. That each of these principles is exclusively essential to its respective form of government, but unnecessary and even prejudicial in the others, is a position contrary both to reason and to truth. No form of government can subsist where every one of those principles has not its operation. The admission of such a theory leads to the most mischievous conclusions; as, for example, that in monarchies the state dispenses with virtue in its officers and magistrates; the public employments ought to be venal; and that crimes, if kept secret, are of no consequence.

5. It is only in the infant periods of the Grecian history, that we are to look for those splendid examples of patriotism and heroic virtue, which the ardent mind of uncorrupted youth will ever delight to contemplate. The most remarkable circumstance which strikes us on comparing the latter with the more early periods of the history of the Greeks, is the total change in the genius and spirit of the people. The ardour of patriotism, the thirst of military glory, the enthusiasm of liberty, decline with the rising grandeur and opulence of the nation; and an enthusiasm succeeds of another species, and far less worthy in its aim; an admiration of the fine arts, a violent passion for the objects of taste and for the refinements of luxury. This leads us to consider Greece in the light in which, after the loss of her liberty, she still continued to attract the admiration of other nations.

SECTION XXX.

STATE OF THE ARTS IN GREECE.

1. It is not among the Greeks that we are to look for the greatest improvement in the useful or the necessary arts of life. When we speak of the eminence of this people in the arts, we are understood to mean those which, by distinction, are termed the fine arts, or those which mark the refinement of a people, and which come in the train of luxury. In agriculture, manufactures, commerce, they never were greatly distinguished. But in those which are termed the fine arts—architecture, sculpture, painting, and music, Greece surpassed all the contemporary nations: and the monuments of these which yet remain, are the models of imitation, and the confessed standard of excellence, in the judgment of the most polished nations of modern times.

2. After the defeat of Xerxes, the active spirit of the Athenians, which would have otherwise languished for want of an object, taking a new direction from luxury, displayed itself signally in all the works of taste in the fine arts. The administration of Pericles was the era of luxury and splendour. The arts broke out at once with surprising lustre; and architecture, sculpture, and painting, were carried to the summit of perfection. This golden age of the arts in Greece endured for about a century, till after the death of Alexander the Great.

3. The Greeks were the parents of that system of architecture which is universally allowed to be the most perfect.

The Greek architecture consisted of three distinct orders—the Doric, the Ionic, and Corinthian.

The Doric was probably the first regular order; it has a masculine grandeur, and a superior air of strength to both the others. It is therefore best adapted to works of great magnitude and of a sublime character. The character of sublimity is essentially connected with chasteness and simplicity. Of this order is the temple of Theseus at Athens, built ten years after the battle of Marathon, that is, 481 years before the Christian era; a fabric which has stood upwards of 2,300 years, and is at this day almost entire.

The Ionic order is light and elegant. The former has been compared to the robust and muscular proportions of a man; the latter to the more slender and delicate proportions of a woman. The character of this order is likewise simplicity, which is as essential a requisite to true beauty as it is to grandeur and sublimity. The Ionic admits, with propriety, of decorations which would be unsuitable to the Doric. Of this order were constituted some of the noblest of the Greek temples; particularly the temple of Apollo at Miletus, that of the Delphic Oracle, and the *superb temple* of Diana at Ephesus, classed among the wonders of the world.

The Corinthian marks an age of luxury and magnificence, when pomp and splendour had become the predominant passion, but had not yet extinguished the taste for the sublime and beautiful. It had its origin at Corinth, one of the most luxurious cities of Greece; and was, probably, the production of an artist who had to effect the greatest splendour, and at the same time to preserve a grandeur and beauty of proportions. It attempts, therefore, an union of all these characters; but satisfies not the chastened judgment, and pleases only a corrupted taste. Of this order were built many of the most splendid temples, particularly that of Jupiter Olympus at Athens, founded by Pisistratus, but not completely finished till 700 years after, under the reign of Adrian. Its remains are yet very considerable.

The characters of the three orders of Grecian architecture have been happily distinguished by the Poet of the Seasons:—

“First unadorn’d,
And nobly plain, the manly Doric rose;
The Ionic then, with decent matron grace,
Her airy pillar heaved; luxuriant last
The rich Corinthian spread her wanton wreath.”

Thomson's Liberty, Part II.

4. The Tuscan and the Composite orders are of Italian origin. The Etruscan architecture appears to be nearly allied to the Grecian, but to possess an inferior degree of elegance. The Trajan pillar at Rome is of this order. This magnificent column has braved the injuries of time, and is entire at the present day. Its excellence consists less in the form and proportions of the pillar, than in the admirable sculpture, representing the victories of Trajan over the Dacians, which decorates it. The Composite order is what its name implies; it shows that the Greeks had in the three original orders exhausted all the principles of grandeur and beauty; and that it was not possible to frame a fourth, but by combining the former.

5. The Gothic architecture, which is often found to produce a striking effect, offers no contradiction to these observations. The effect which it produces cannot be altogether accounted for by the rules of symmetry or harmony in the proportions between the several parts; but depends on a certain idea of vastness, gloominess, and solemnity, which are powerful ingredients in the sublime. Of this order is the cathedral of Milan, one of the noblest Gothic structures in the world.

6. Sculpture and painting were brought by the Greeks to as high a pitch of perfection as architecture. The remains of Grecian sculpture are at this day the most perfect models of the art; and the modern artists have no means of attaining to excellence so certain as the study of those great masterpieces.

7. The excellence of the Greeks in sculpture may perhaps be accounted for chiefly from their having the human figure often before their eyes quite naked, and in all its various attitudes,

both in the *Palæstra* and in their public games. The antique statues have therefore a grandeur united with perfect simplicity, because the attitude is not the result of an artificial disposition of the figure, as in the modern academies, but is nature unconstrained. Thus, in the Dying Gladiator, when we observe the relaxation of the muscles, and the visible failure of strength and life, we cannot doubt that nature was the sculptor's immediate model of imitation.*

8. And this nature was in reality superior to what we now see in the ordinary race of men. The constant practice of gymnastic exercises gave a finer conformation of body than what is now to be found in the vitiated pupils of modern effeminacy, the artificial children of modern fashion.

9. A *secondary* cause of the eminence of the Greeks in the arts of design, was their theology, which furnished an ample exercise for the genius of the sculptor and painter.

10. We must speak with more diffidence of the ability of the Greeks in painting, than we do of their superiority in sculpture; because the existing specimens of the former are very few, and the pieces which are preserved are probably not the most excellent. But in the want of actual evidence, we have every presumption that the Greeks had attained to equal perfection in the art of painting and in sculpture; for if we find the judgment given by ancient writers of their excellence in sculpture, confirmed by the universal assent of the best critics among the moderns, we have just reason to presume an equal rectitude in the judgment which the same ancient writers have pronounced upon their paintings. If Pliny is right in his opinion of the merits of those statues which yet remain, the Venus of Praxiteles,† the Laocoon and his sons of Agesander,‡ of Polydorus, and Athénodorus, we have no reason to suppose his taste to be less just when he celebrates the merits and critically characterizes the different manners of Zeuxis, Apelles, Parrhasius, Protogenes, and Timanthes, whose works have perished.

11. The paintings found in Herculaneum, Pompeii, the Sepulchrum Nasonianum at Rome, were probably the work of Greek artists; for we have no evidence that the Romans were ever eminent in any of the arts dependent on design. These paintings exhibit great knowledge of proportions, and of the chiaro-oscuro; but betray an ignorance of the rules of perspective.

* "With such admirable art was the statue of the Dying Gladiator sculptured by Cresilas, that one could judge how much of life remained"—*Plin. lib. 36.*

† Praxiteles flourished 369 B.C. His merits, and an enumeration of his principal works, may be found in Pliny, l. 34, c. 8; l. 36, c. 5. He excelled in female beauty. His *naked Venus*, after the model of the courtesan *Phryne*, is preserved and known to the moderns by the name of the Venus de Medici; and the colossal statue of his *veiled Venus* was discovered in 1820, at Milo, and is now in the Louvre, being perhaps the most magnificent specimen of Greek art which now exists.

‡ The Laocoon was found in the baths of Titus, in 1506, and now stands on the *Belvedere* at Rome.

12. The music of the ancients appears to have been very greatly inferior to that of the moderns.

13. The peculiar genius of the Greeks in the fine arts, extended its effects to the revolutions of their states, and influenced their fate as a nation. They consoled themselves for the loss of their liberty by the flattering distinction of being the humanizers of their conquerors, the unpolished Romans.

SECTION XXXI.

OF THE GREEK POETS.

1. THE Greeks were the first who reduced the athletic exercises to a system and considered them as an object of general attention and importance. The Panathenæan, and afterwards the Olympic, the Pythian, Nemæan, and Isthmian games, were under the regulation of the laws, and subject to the rules laid down by the ablest statesmen and legislators. They contributed essentially to the improvement of the nation: and while they cherished martial ardour, and promoted hardiness and agility of body, cultivated likewise urbanity and politeness.

2. The games of Greece were not confined to gymnastic or athletic exercises. They encouraged competitions in genius and learning. They were the resort of the poets, the historians, and the philosophers.

3. In all nations poetry is of greater antiquity than prose composition. The earliest prose writers in Greece, Pherecydes of Scyros, and Cadmus of Miletus, were 350 years posterior to Homer. Any remains of the more ancient poets, as Linus, Orpheus, &c. are extremely suspicious. Homer, of whose birth both the place and era are very uncertain, is generally supposed to have been a native of Ionia, and to have flourished probably between 962—927, B.C.; to have followed the occupation of a wandering minstrel, and to have composed his poems in detached fragments, and separate ballads, and episodes. Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, is said to have been the first who brought from Ionia into Greece complete copies of the Iliad and Odyssey; which, however, were not arranged in the order in which we now see them, till 250 years afterwards by Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens, about 540 B.C. who first employed learned men to collect and methodise these fragments; and to this we owe the complete poems of the Iliad and Odyssey. They were revised by Callisthenes and Anaxarchus, at the command of Alexander the Great; and again finally revised by the celebrated grammarian and critic, Aristarchus, by order of Ptolemy Philometor. But the distinguishing merits of Homer are independent of all artificial arrangement. His profound knowledge of human nature, his masterly skill in the delineation of character, his faith-

ful and minute description of ancient manners, his command of the passions, his genius for the sublime and beautiful, and the harmony of his poetical numbers, have deservedly established his reputation as the greatest poet of antiquity. His fidelity as a historian has been questioned; but the great outlines of his narrative are probably authentic. The moral of the *Iliad* is, that dissension among the chiefs of a country is generally fatal to the people; and that of the *Odyssey*, that prudence joined to courage and perseverance are sufficient to surmount the most powerful obstacles.

4. Hesiod [fl. 859—824.] was nearly contemporary with Homer: a poet, of whose merits we should be little sensible, were they not seen through the medium of an immense antiquity. The poem of the *Works and Days* contains some judicious precepts of agriculture. The *Theogony* is an obscure history of the origin of the gods and the formation of the universe.

5. About two centuries after Homer and Hesiod, flourished Archilochus [708—665], the inventor of Iambic verse; and Terpander [fl. 676—644], who is equally celebrated as a poet and a musician, but of whose verses we have no remains. The two succeeding centuries were distinguished by nine lyric poets of great celebrity. Alcman [fl. 671—631] and Stesichorus [fl. 611], of whom we have but a few imperfect remains; Sappho [fl. 608], of whose composition we have two exquisite odes; Alcaeus [fl. 611], Simonides [fl. 520], Ibycus [fl. 560], and Bacchylides, of whom there are some fine fragments; and Pindar [fl. 518—439] and Anacreon [fl. 559—530], who have left enough to allow an accurate estimate of their merits.

6. Pindar was esteemed by the ancients the chief of the lyric poets. He possesses unbounded fancy and great sublimity of imagery; but his digressions are so rapid and so frequent, that we cannot discover the chain of thought; and his expression is allowed, even by Longinus, to be often obscure and unintelligible.

7. Anacreon is a great contrast to Pindar. His fancy suggests only familiar and luxurious pictures. He has no comprehension of the sublime, but contents himself with the easy, the graceful, and the wanton. His morality is loose, and his sentiments little else than the effusions of a voluptuary, and therefore too immoral to find favour with the friends of virtue.

8. The collection termed *Anthologia*, which consists chiefly of ancient epigrams, contains many valuable specimens of the taste and poetical fancy of the Greeks, and contributes materially to the illustration of their manners. The best of the modern epigrams may be traced to this source.

9. The era of the origin of dramatic composition among the Greeks, is supposed to have commenced about 590 B. C. Thespis, who is said to have been the inventor of tragedy, was contemporary with Solon. Within little more than a century the

Greek drama was carried to its highest perfection; for Æschylus died 456 B.C. Æschylus wrote seventy-five tragedies; for thirteen of which he gained the first prize of dramatic poetry at the Olympic games. Only seven are now extant. Like Shakespeare, his genius is sublime and his imagination unbounded. He disdained regularity of plan and all artificial restriction; but unfortunately he disdained likewise the restraints of decency and of good morals.

10. Euripides (480—406) and Sophocles (495—405) flourished about fifty years after Æschylus. Euripides is most masterly in painting the passion of love, both in its tenderest emotions and in its most violent paroxysms: yet the characters of his women demonstrate that he had no great opinion of the virtues of the sex. Longinus does not rate high his talent for the sublime; but he possessed a much superior excellence—his verses, with great eloquence and harmony, breathe the most admirable morality. There remain eighteen tragedies of Euripides, out of about 120 said to have been written by him; and of these the *Medea* is deemed the most excellent.

11. Sophocles shared with Euripides the palm of dramatic poetry; and is judged to have surpassed him in the grand, the terrible, and the sublime. Of 100 tragedies which he composed, only seven remain. They display great knowledge of the human heart, and a general chastity and simplicity of expression, which give the greater force to the occasional strokes of the sublime. The *Edipus* of Sophocles is esteemed the most perfect production of the Greek stage.

12. The Greek comedy is divided into the *ancient*, the *middle*, and the *new*. The first was a licentious satire and mimicry of real personages exhibited by name upon the stage. The laws repressed this extreme license, and gave birth to the middle comedy, which continued the satirical delineation of real persons, but under fictitious names. The last improvement consisted in banishing all personal satire, and confining comedy to a delineation of manners. This was the new comedy. Of the first species, the ancient, we have no remains. The dramas of Aristophanes (fl. 427—388), of which we have eleven out of fifty-four, are an example of the second or middle comedy. The grossness of his raillery, and the malevolence which frequently inspired it, are a reproach to the morals of that people which could tolerate it. Yet his works have their value, as throwing light upon ancient manners.

13. Of the new comedy, Menander (fl. 330—20) was the bright example; possessing a vein of the most delicate wit, with the utmost purity of moral sentiment. Unfortunately we have nothing of him remaining but a few fragments preserved by Athenæus, Plutarch, Stobæus, and Eustathius. We see a great deal of his merits, however, in his copyist and translator, Terence.

14. The actors, both in the Greek and Roman theatres, wore

masks, of which the features were strongly painted, and the mouth so constructed as to increase the power of the voice.—It is probable the tragedy and comedy of the Greeks and Romans were set to music, and sung like the recitative in the Italian opera; and sometimes one person was employed to recite or sing the part, and another to perform the corresponding action or gesticulation.

15. The Mimes originally made a part of the ancient comedy, and consisted of grotesque dances played between the acts; but becoming popular with the vulgar, they became a separate entertainment, representing burlesque parodies on the serious tragedy and comedy. The Pantomimes differed from the *mimes* in this respect, that they consisted solely of gesticulation, and were carried to great perfection. They seem to have been very similar to our modern pantomimes.

SECTION XXXII.

OF THE GREEK HISTORIANS.

1. THE genius of the Greeks was in no department of literary composition more distinguished than in history; and the most eminent of their historians were nearly contemporary with each other. Herodotus, born 484, died in — B.C.; Thucydides, born 471, died in 319; and Xenophon, who was about forty years later than Thucydides, died 359. Herodotus, a native of Halicarnassus, one of the Greek cities of Asia, has written the joint history of the Greeks and Persians from the time of Cyrus the Great to the battles of Plataea and Mycale, a period of 120 years (599—479). He treats incidentally likewise of the history of several other nations—of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Medes, and Lydians. His veracity is to be depended on in all matters that fell under his own observation; but he admits too easily the reports of others, and is in general fond of the marvellous. His style is pure, and he has a copious elocution.

2. Thucydides was a native of Athens, and of an illustrious family. He was an able general, and has written, with great ability, the history of the first twenty-one years of the Peloponnesian war; introducing it with a short narrative of the preceding periods of the history of Greece. He is justly esteemed for his fidelity and candour. His style is a contrast to the full and flowing period of Herodotus, possessing a sententious brevity which is at once lively and energetic. The history of the remaining six years of the war of Peloponnesus was written by Theopompus and Xenophon.

3. Xenophon commanded the Greek army in the service of *Cyrus the younger*, in his culpable enterprise against his brother *Artaxerxes*. (See Sect. XX. § 14.) After the failure of this

ise, Xenophon directed that astonishing retreat from n to the Euxine, of which he has given an interesting thful narrative. He wrote likewise the *Cyropedia*, or the of the elder Cyrus, which is believed to be rather an ury delineation of an accomplished prince than a real on. He continued the history of Thucydides, and has) excellent political tracts on the constitutions of Lacedæ- and Athens. His style is simple and energetic, familiar, ned, and free from all affectation.

reece, in her decline, produced some historians of great ce. Polybius (fl. 210—124), a native of Megalopolis, in a, wrote forty books of the Roman and Greek history his own age; that is, from the beginning of the second ar to the reduction of Macedonia into a Roman province; his great work only the first five books are entire, with ome of the following twelve. He merits less the praise uence and purity than of authentic information and most is reflection.

diodorus Siculus flourished (60—30) in the time of Au- and composed, in forty books, a general history of the under the title of *Bibliotheca Historica*. No more remain een books; of which the first five treat of the fabulous , and the history of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Persians, , &c., prior to the Trojan war. The next five are want- The remainder brings down the history from the expedi- Xerxes into Greece till after the death of Alexander the

He is taxed with chronological inaccuracy in the earlier of his work; but the authenticity and correctness of the periods are unimpeached. His style, though not to be ed to that of Xenophon or Thucydides, is pure, perspi- and unaffected.

tionysius of Halicarnassus, eminent both as a historian and cian, flourished in the age of Augustus (d. ab. 7 B.C.) His i Antiquities contain much valuable information, though ck is too much tinctured with the spirit of systematizing. , the great geographer, lived also in this period, from writings an accurate account of the principal states of rld is obtained, particularly of Greece, Italy, Sardinia, Ethiopia, and Judea, which he visited. He was a native padocia, and died about the year 25 A.C.

lutarch, a native of Chæronea in Bœotia, flourished in gn of Nero (died about 140 A.C.). His "*Lives of Illus- Men*" is one of the most valuable of the literary works of cients, introducing us to an acquaintance with the private ter and manners of those eminent persons whose public aments are recorded by professed historians. His moral- xcellent; his style is clear and energetic, and when the t demands it, rises frequently to great eloquence.

Arrian, a native of Nicomedia, wrote, in the reign of

Adrian, seven books of the Wars of Alexander, with great judgment and fidelity; his narrative being composed on the authority of Aristobulus and Ptolemy, two of Alexander's principal officers. No historical record, therefore, has a better claim to the public faith. His style is unadorned, but chaste, perspicuous, and manly. It is to his writings that we owe all our knowledge of the sublime morality of Epictetus, of whom he was the favourite disciple.

SECTION XXXIII.

OF THE GREEK PHILOSOPHERS.

1. AFTER the time of Homer and Hesiod, the increasing relish for poetical composition gave rise to a set of men termed Rhapsodists, whose employment was to recite at the games and festivals the composition of the older poets, and to comment on their merits and explain their doctrines. Some of these, founding schools of instruction, were dignified by their pupils with the epithet of Sophists, or teachers of wisdom.

2. The most ancient school of philosophy was that founded by Thales, of Miletus, 640 B.C., and termed the Ionic sect, from the country of the founder. Thales is celebrated for his knowledge both in geometry and astronomy. His metaphysical doctrines are but imperfectly known. He taught the belief of a First Cause, and an overruling Providence; but supposed the Divinity to animate the universe, as the soul does the body. The moral doctrines of the Ionic school were pure and rational. The most eminent of the disciples of Thales were Anaximander and Anaxagoras (fl. 530.)

3. Soon after the Ionic, arose the Italian sect, so termed from the country where Pythagoras, its founder, is said to have first taught. Pythagoras is generally believed to have been a native of Samos, and to have been born about 586 B.C. He is supposed to have derived much of his knowledge from Egypt; and he had, like the Egyptian priests, a public doctrine for the people and a private for his disciples; the former a good system of morals, the latter probably unintelligible mystery. His notions of the Divinity were akin to those of Thales; but he believed in the eternity of the universe and its coexistence with the Deity. He taught the transmigration of the soul through different bodies. His disciples lived in common; they abstained rigorously from the flesh of animals; they held music in high estimation, as a corrective of the passions. Pythagoras believed the earth to be a sphere, the planets to be inhabited, and the fixed stars to be the suns and centres of other systems. His most eminent followers were Empedocles, Epicharmus, Ocellus Lucanus, Timæus, Archytas.

4. The Eleatic sect of philosophy, believed to have sprung from the Pythagorean or Italic, was founded by Xenophanes, about 500 B.C. Its chief supporters were Parmenides, Zeno, and Leucippus, natives of Elea, from which city the sect took its name. The metaphysical notions of this sect were utterly unintelligible. They maintained, that things had neither beginning, end, nor any change; and that all the changes we perceive are in our own senses. Yet Leucippus taught the doctrine of atoms, from whence he supposed all material substances to be formed. Of this sect were Democritus and Heraclitus.

5. The Socratic school arose from the Ionic. Socrates died 401 B.C., the wisest, the most virtuous of the Greeks. He exploded the futile logic of the Sophists, which consisted of a set of general arguments applicable to all manner of questions, and by which they could, with an appearance of plausibility, maintain either side of any proposition. Socrates always brought his antagonist to particulars; beginning with a simple and undeniable position, which being granted, another followed equally undeniable, till the disputant was conducted step by step, by his own concessions, to that side of the question on which lay the truth. His rivals lost all credit as philosophers, but had influence to procure the destruction of the man who had exposed them. He left no writings, but his doctrines are to be learned from Plato and Xenophon. He taught the belief of a First Cause, whose beneficence is equal to his power, the Creator and Ruler of the Universe. He inculcated the moral agency of man, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. He exploded the Polytheistic superstitions of his country, and thence became the victim of an accusation of impiety. (See Section XXIII. § 6.) The most eminent of the disciples of Socrates were Plato and Xenophon.

6. The morality of Socrates was successfully cultivated by the Cyrenaic sect, but was pushed the length of extravagance by the Cynics. The founder of this sect was Antisthenes, a pupil of Socrates. Virtue, in their opinion, consisted in renouncing all the conveniences of life. They clothed themselves in rags, slept and eat in the streets, or wandered about the country with a stick and a knapsack. They condemned all knowledge as useless. They associated impudence with ignorance, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective without restraint. The most eminent of this sect was Diogenes.

7. The Megarean sect was founded by Euclid, not the mathematician, and were the happy inventors of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling. The most eminent were Eubulides, Alexinus Eleensis, Diodorus, and Stilpo.

8. The Academic sect had Plato for its founder, a native of *Egina*, and thus by his country an Athenian; he was born about 430, B.C.; a philosopher, whose doctrines have had a more extensive and more lasting empire over the minds of mankind than

those perhaps of any other among the ancients. This is in part owing to their intrinsic merit, and in part to the eloquence with which they have been propounded. Plato had the most sublime ideas of the Divinity and his attributes. He taught that the human soul was a portion of the Divinity, and that this alliance with the Eternal Mind might be improved into actual intercourse with the Supreme Being, by abstracting the soul from all the corruptions it derives from the body; a doctrine highly flattering to the pride of man, and generating that mystical enthusiasm which has the most powerful empire over a warm imagination. Some of the most eminent men of Greece were his disciples—Demosthenes, Isocrates, and Aristotle.

9. The Platonic philosophy found its chief opponents in four remarkable sects—those of Aristotle, of Pyrrho, of Zeno, and Epicurus; in other words, the Peripatetic, the Sceptic, the Stoic, and the Epicurean.

10. Aristotle, the founder of the Peripatetic sect, was born at Stagyræ, in Thrace, a city then under the dominion of Macedonia (fl. 384—322). He was the tutor of Alexander the Great, and established his school in the Lyceum at Athens; a philosopher, whose tenets have found more zealous partisans, and more rancorous opponents, than those of any other. It was his custom to discourse to his disciples in walking, and hence his philosophy was termed *peripatetic*. His *Metaphysics*, from the sententious brevity of his expression, are extremely obscure, and have given rise to numberless commentaries. The best analysis of his logic is given by Dr Reid, in Lord Kames's *Sketches of the History of Man*. His physical works are the result of great observation and acquaintance with nature; and his critical writings, as his *Poetics* and *Art of Rhetoric*, display both taste and judgment. It is the latter works that will ever continue to be most valued. The peculiar passion of Aristotle was that of classifying, arranging, and combining the objects of his knowledge so as to reduce all to a few principles; a dangerous propensity in philosophy, and repressive of improvement in science.

11. The Sceptical sect was founded by Pyrrho, a native of Elea (died 288). They formed no systems of their own, but endeavoured to weaken the foundations of those of all others. They inculcated universal doubt as the only true wisdom. There was, in their opinion, no essential difference between vice and virtue, farther than as human compact had discriminated them. Tranquillity of mind they supposed to be the state of the greatest happiness, and this was to be attained by absolute indifference to all dogmas or opinions.

12. The Stoics, proposing to themselves the same end, tranquillity of mind, took a nobler path to arrive at it. They endeavoured to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity. They believed all nature, and God himself the soul of the universe, to be regulated by fixed and immutable

laws. The human soul being a portion of the Divinity, man cannot complain of being actuated by that necessity which actuates the Divinity himself. His pains and his pleasures are determined by the same laws which determine his existence. Virtue consists in accommodating the disposition of the mind to the immutable laws of nature; vice, in opposing those laws; vice therefore is folly, and virtue the only true wisdom. A beautiful picture of the Stoical philosophy is found in the *Enchiridion* of Epictetus, and in the *Meditations* of M. Aurelius Antoninus. The founder of this sect was Zeno (fl. 299—263), a native of Cyprus, and disciple of Crates the Cynic.

13. Epicurus (died 270) taught that man's supreme happiness consisted in pleasure. He himself limited the term so as to make it mean only the practice of virtue. But if pleasure is allowed to be the object, every man will draw it from those sources which he finds can best supply it. It might have been the pleasure of Epicurus to be chaste and temperate. We are told it was so; but others find their pleasure in intemperance and luxury; and such was the taste of his principal followers. Epicurus held that the Deity was indifferent to all the actions of man. They therefore had no other counsellor than their own conscience, and no other guide than the instinctive desire of their own happiness.

14. The Greek philosophy, on the whole, affords little else than a picture of the imbecility and caprice of the human mind. Its teachers, instead of experiment and observation, satisfied themselves with constructing theories; and these, wanting fact for their basis, have only served to perplex the understanding, and retard equally the advancement of sound morality and the progress of useful knowledge.

SECTION XXXIV.*

THE HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

From the Babylonian captivity to the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus, 606 B. C., to 71 A. C.

1. [THE Jewish history, during this period, is divided as follows: 1. During the captivity, 606—536. 2. Under the Persians, 536—323. 3. Under the Ptolemies and Seleucidæ, 323—167. 4. Under the Maccabees, 167—89. 5. Under the Herodians and Romans, 89 B. C. to 71 A. C.]

2. *First period, during the captivity.*—The condition of the Hebrews while in captivity, was far from being one of abject wretchedness. This is manifest from the circumstance that the prophet Daniel held the *first office* at the court of Babylon; and that *Jehoiachin, the former king of Judah*, in the forty-fourth

year of the captivity, was released from an imprisonment which had continued for thirty-six years, and was preferred in point of rank to all the kings who were then at Babylon, either detained as hostages, or present for the purpose of paying their homage to the Chaldee monarch. He was treated as the first of the kings, he ate at the table of his conqueror, and received an annual allowance corresponding to his regal dignity. From these circumstances of honour, a splendour must have been reflected back on all the exiles; so that they could neither be ill-treated, nor despised, nor very much oppressed. They probably had received grants of land, and were viewed as respectable colonists, who enjoyed the peculiar protection of the sovereign. In the respect paid to Jehoiachin, his son Shealtiel, and his grandson Zerubbabel, undoubtedly participated; at the same time, it cannot be denied that their humiliation was always painful, and drew on them expressions of contempt. The peculiarities of their religion afforded many opportunities for the ridicule and scorn of the Babylonians and Chaldeans, a striking example of which is given in the profanation of the sacred vessels of the temple. (Daniel v.)

3. *Second period, under the Persians.*—Cyxares II. refused the Hebrews his permission to return to Judea; but his successor, Cyrus the Great, in the first year of his reign (536) caused proclamation to be made throughout the Persian empire, that all the worshippers of Jehovah, without exception, had liberty to return to Judea and rebuild the temple at Jerusalem. This general permission therefore extended to the Israelites in Assyria, Halah, Gozan, and Media, as well as to the Jews at Chebar and Babylon. The more important and wealthy portion of the Hebrews preferred to remain where they had been so long settled, than to expose themselves to the danger and uncertainty of removing to a country where they had everything to recreate. Those who formed the first caravan belonged to the tribes of Judah, Benjamin, and Levi; and numbered about fifty thousand souls. They were headed by Zerubbabel,* grandson of king Jehoiachin, accompanied by the high-priest Joshua, and ten of the principal elders, the journey occupying about four months, and terminating in the seventieth year of the captivity, the fifty-second year after the destruction of the temple. "The new settlers found it difficult to keep their footing, principally in consequence of differences (produced by the intolerance they themselves evinced at the building of the temple) with their neighbours and kinsmen the Samaritans, to whom the colony was only a cause of expense." The Samaritans, subsequently, having erected a separate temple at Gerizim, near Sichem, about

* Zerubbabel was appointed not only leader of the Caravan, but also governor of Judea; and received from Cyrus five thousand four hundred sacred vessels of gold and silver which Nebuchadnezzar had carried from Jerusalem to Babylon. Cyrus prescribed the size of the temple that was to be rebuilt, and directed that the expense should be defrayed from the royal treasury.

336, not only separated completely, but laid the foundation of an inveterate hatred between the two nations. Hence the prohibition to rebuild the city and temple, brought about by their means, under Cambyzes, 529, and Smerdis, 522, and not taken off until 520, in the reign of Darius Hystaspes. The new colony did not receive a permanent internal constitution till the time of Ezra* and Nehemiah;† both brought in fresh colonists, the former in 478, the latter in 445. The country was under the dominion of the satraps of Syria; but in the increasing domestic declension of the Persian empire, the high-priests gradually became the virtual rulers of the nation. Nevertheless, even at the time of Alexander's conquest (332) the Jews seem to have manifested proofs of fidelity to the Persians.

4. *Third period, under the Ptolemies and Seleucidae, 323—167.*—After the death of Alexander the Great, Palestine, in consequence of its situation, generally shared the fate of Phœnicia and Syria. In 312, Ptolemy I. occupied Jerusalem, and transplanted a vast colony of Jews to Alexandria;‡ from thence they spread to Cyrene, and gradually over the whole of North Africa, and even in Æthiopia. From 311—301 the Jews remained, however,

* Ezra was appointed governor, with a commission to appoint judges, to rectify abuses, and to enforce the observance of the law by fine, imprisonment, banishment, or death. He also had permission to make a collection for the temple, among the Hebrews who chose to remain in the land of their exile; and the king (Xerxes I.) and his counsellors not only contributed generously towards the same object, but the managers of the royal revenues west of the Euphrates, were ordered to supply Ezra with all he should require, of silver to one hundred talents, wheat to one hundred cors, wine and oil to one hundred baths of each, and salt without limitation, that the sacrifices might be legally and regularly offered, that the wrath of the God of heaven should not be against the realm of the king and of his sons. Also, all who were employed in the services of the temple, even the common labourers, (Nethinims,) were exempted from tribute, and thus placed on an equality with the Medes and Persians. This was done to influence the priests and Levites to settle at Jerusalem, for as yet but very few of them had returned. (Ezra vii.; viii. 15—20.) Notwithstanding it was with difficulty that Ezra induced two families of priests to accompany him. The caravan consisted of sixteen houses, which, including women and children, probably amounted to six thousand persons. After a journey of three months and a half, the new colony arrived at Jerusalem, deposited at the temple the donations they had received for it, and Ezra delivered his credentials to the royal officers of that district. (Ezra viii.) Of all the improvements and regulations which he introduced into Judea, the Book that bears his name mentions only the removal of the heathen women; a measure which was necessary in order to guard against a return to idolatry. But Nehemiah informs us that Ezra had the law publicly read to the people, and explained by interpreters to those who understood only Aramean. This undoubtedly gave occasion to the multiplying of copies of the law in Judea. (Ezra ix, x; Neh. viii. 1—12, comp. 1 Macc i. 57, 58.)—Jahn.

† During the rebellion of Megabyzus, satrap of Syria, Judea was the seat of war, and subjected to great distress for two years. This information so affected the prophet Nehemiah, (cup-bearer to Artaxerxes I.) that the king observed his melancholy, and inquiring its cause, he appointed him governor of Judea, with full power to fortify Jerusalem, and thus to secure it from those disasters to which unprotected places are always exposed in time of war. Orders were sent to the royal officers west of the Euphrates to assist in the fortification of the city, and to furnish the requisite timber from the king's forest; probably on mount Libanus, near the sources of the river Kadisha, as that was the place celebrated for its cedars. Thus commissioned, Nehemiah journeyed to Judea, accompanied by military officers and cavalry. (Neh. i; ii. 1—9.)

‡ In consequence of the fidelity of the Jews to the Persian kings, Ptolemy granted them the same privileges in Alexandria as Alexander had conferred on the Macedonians. He also employed a part of them in garrisoning his fortresses and in other duties of trust.

subject to Antigonus. After the overthrow of his empire remained under the dominion of the Ptolemies until 2 most conspicuous of their high-priests during this interval Simon the just (died 291), and afterwards his son, Onias (218), who, by withholding the tribute due to Ptolemy I posed Judea to imminent danger. In the second war of Antioch the Great against Egypt, 203, the Jews of their own accord acknowledged themselves his subjects, and assisted in driving the Egyptian troops, who, under their general Scopas had possessed themselves of the country and the citadel of Jerusalem, 198. Antiochus confirmed the Jews in the possession of all their privileges; and although he promised them, together with Cœlo-Syria and Phœnicia, to Ptolemy Epiphanes as the future dowry of his daughter, Judea still remained under the Syrian supremacy, except that the revenue was for a time divided between the Syrian and Egyptian kings. But the policy of Antiochus the Great by the Romans was also the remote cause of the subsequent misfortunes of the Jews. The dearth of money in which the Syrian kings found themselves, and the riches of the temple, the accumulation of the same, and the gifts, made the office of high-priest an object of great chase under Antiochus Epiphanes: hence arose quarrels between the pontifical families, and out of those sprung factions. Antiochus Epiphanes was desirous to turn to his own account by the introduction of Grecian institutions among the Jews, in order thereby to promote the subjection of that people, and raised by its privileges almost to the rank of a state within the empire of Syria. The pious high-priest, Onias III., was recalled to Antioch, there to remain in exile, that he might offer no obstacle to the contemplated innovations (175). His brother, Seleucus, obtained the mitre by purchase, and on condition that he should introduce the Grecian customs: Jason, however, was in 175 superseded by his brother Menelaus who promised a still larger tribute, (172). During the civil war arising out of those factions Antiochus Epiphanes, on returning with his army from Syria, sent a part of it to occupy Jerusalem (167), and to vent his rage against the Jews for their opposition to Menelaus, the high-priest of his own appointment: the consequent cruelty and oppression of the Jews, who now were to be Hellenized * by force, soon occasioned the rise under the Maccabees.

5. *Fourth Period, under the Maccabees, 167—39.* The revolt against Antiochus IV., Epiphanes, was brought about

* Atheneus was sent to Jerusalem to instruct the Jews in the Greek religion and to compel them to an observance of its rites. He dedicated the temple to Jupiter Olympius, and caused sacrifices to be offered in it; circumcision, observance of the Sabbath, and every observance of the law, was now made a capital crime, and all the copies of the sacred books were burned. Groves were planted, and stately altars were built in every city, and the citizens were required to offer sacrifices to the gods and eat swine's flesh every month on the birth-day of Antiochus. Those who refused to obey these orders were put to death without mercy.

priest Mattathias, who died soon after, and was immediately succeeded by his son Judas, who, on account of his heroic exploits, received the surname of Maccabæus (the hammerer). Supported by the fanaticism of his party, Judas defeated in several battles the generals of Antiochus that were sent against him, and made himself master of the whole country, when he returned to Jerusalem and purified the temple. On Epiphanes being informed of these successes, he determined to exterminate the whole nation and give their country to others; but he died on his journey for that purpose (163). Under Antiochus V. Eupator, the sedition continued successful both against the Syrian king and the high-priest Alcimus, his creature. Judas having been defeated and killed by Bacchides, the general of Demetrius I., he was succeeded by his brother Jonathan (161), who, on the death of the high-priest Alcimus (160), succeeded to that office in the ensuing war between Demetrius I. and Alexander Balas, both rivals courting his alliance. Jonathan sided with Balas, and, from being merely the leader of a party, came to be head of the nation, which still, nevertheless, continued to pay tribute to the kings. Notwithstanding the favour he had shown to Balas, after the overthrow of that pretender he was confirmed in his dignity by Demetrius II. (145), to whose assistance he marched at the subsequent great revolt in Antioch. Jonathan, however, in 144, passed over to the side of the usurper, Antiochus *Theos*, the son of Balas, and was by embassy presented with the friendship of the Romans in the same year; but by the treachery of Tryphon was taken and put to death (143). His brother and successor, Simon, having declared against Tryphon (the murderer of Antiochus), was by Demetrius II. not only confirmed in his dignity, but excused from paying tribute; he likewise received the title of prince (ethnarch); and appears to have struck coins. After the capture of Demetrius II. by the Parthians, his brother, Antiochus Sidetes, allowed Simon to remain in possession of those privileges so long as he stood in need of his assistance against Tryphon; but after the death of that usurper and tyrant, he caused him (130) to be attacked by Cendebæus, who was defeated by the sons of Simon. Simon having been murdered, with his sons Mattathias and Judas, by his son-in-law, Ptolemy, who aspired to the government (135), was succeeded by his son, John Hyrcanus (135—107), who was compelled to acknowledge submission to Antiochus Sidetes; but after the defeat and death of that prince by the Parthians (130), he again asserted his entire independence. The deep decline of the Syrian kingdom, the constant civil wars by which it was distracted, and the renewed league with the Romans, not only enabled Hyrcanus easily to maintain his independence, but likewise to increase his territory by the conquest of the Samaritans and Idumæans. But with him ended the heroic line of the Maccabees. Scarcely

was he delivered from foreign oppression, when domestic broils arose. The Pharisees and Sadducees had hitherto been mere religious sects, but were converted into political factions by Hyrcanus, who, offended with the Pharisees, probably in consequence of their wish to separate the pontifical and princely offices, went over to the Sadducees. The former sect (the orthodox), were, as usual, supported by the many; the latter (the innovators), in consequence of the laxity of their principles, were favoured by the wealthy. Hyrcanus's eldest son, the cruel Aristobulus (107), assumed the royal title, but soon after dying (106), was succeeded by his younger brother, Alexander Jannæus. His reign was an almost unbroken series of insignificant wars with his neighbours, this prince wishing to play the conqueror; and having likewise had the imprudence to irritate the powerful party of the Pharisees, these made him the object of public insult, and excited a tumult (92), which was followed by a bloody civil war, which lasted six years. Jannæus, it is true, maintained himself during the struggle; but the opposite party was so far from being annihilated, that, at his death, when passing over his sons, the feeble Hyrcanus (who possessed the pontifical dignity), and the ambitious Aristobulus, he bequeathed the crown to his widow, Alexandra, with the understanding that she should join the party of the Pharisees. During her reign, therefore (79—71), the Pharisees held the reins of government, and left her only the name. Provoked at this, Aristobulus, shortly before the death of the queen, endeavoured to obtain possession of the throne, and ultimately obtained his ends, notwithstanding Alexandra nominated Hyrcanus to be her successor. Hyrcanus, at the instigation of his confidant, the Idumæan Antipater, who was the progenitor of the Herodians, and assisted by the Arabian prince Aretas, waged war against his brother (65), and shut him up in Jerusalem. But the Romans were arbitrators, and Pompey, then all-powerful in Asia, decided for Hyrcanus (64): the party of Aristobulus, however, refusing to accede, the Roman general took possession of Jerusalem; made Hyrcanus high-priest and prince, under condition that he should pay tribute; and took as prisoners to Rome Aristobulus and his sons, who, however, subsequently escaped, and caused great disturbances. The Jewish state now being dependent on Rome, remained so; and the yoke was confirmed by the policy of Antipater and his sons, who followed the general maxim of entire devotion to Rome, in order thereby to succeed in wholly removing the reigning family. As early as 48, Antipater was appointed procurator of Judea by Cæsar, whom he had supported at Alexandria; and his second son, Herod, governor in Galilee, soon became sufficiently powerful to threaten Hyrcanus and the sanhedrim (45). He gained the favour of Antony; and thus maintained himself amid the tempests which, after the assassination of Cæsar (44), shook the Roman world.

powerful as the party opposed to him were. That party, however, at last, in lieu of the ill-fated Hyrcanus, the only surviving son of Aristobulus, placed Antigonus at their head, and, assisted by the Parthians, then flourishing in power, seated him on the throne (39). Herod, having fled to Rome, not only met with a gracious reception at the hands of the triumviri, but was by them appointed king.

6. *Fifth Period, under the Herodians, B. C. 39 to A. D. 70.*—Herod the Great, B. C. 39 to A. D. 1, put himself in possession of Jerusalem and all Judea (B. C. 37), and confirmed his power by marrying Mariamne, of the house of Maccabees. Notwithstanding his severity, shown to the party of Antigonus, and the house of Maccabees, the total extinction of which Herod deemed necessary for his own safety; yet so greatly did the wasted country stand in need of peace, that for that very reason his reign may be said to have been a happy one. Availing himself of the liberality of Augustus, whose favour he contrived to obtain, after the defeat of Antony, B. C. 31, Herod gradually increased the extent of his kingdom, which at last comprised Judea, Samaria, Galilee, and beyond the Jordan, Peræa, Ituræa, and Trachonitis (that is to say, the whole of Palestine), together with Idumæa. From these countries he derived his income, without being obliged to pay any tribute. The deference consequently shown by Herod to Rome was but the effect of a natural policy, and his conduct in that respect could be objected to him only by bigoted Jews. To his whole family, rather than to himself individually, are to be attributed the executions which took place among its members: happy had it been if the sword had smitten none but the guilty, and spared the innocent! In the last year but one of his reign is placed the birth of Jesus Christ (according to the usually adopted computation, made in the sixth century, by Dionysius Exiguus. But the more accurate calculations of modern chronologists show that the real date of the Saviour's birth was probably four years earlier). According to his will, with some few alterations made by Augustus, his kingdom was divided among his three surviving sons, Archelaus, as ethnarch, receiving the greater moiety, Judea, Samaria, and Idumæa; the two others, as tetrarchs, Philip, a part of Galilee, and Trachonitis, Antipas, the other part of Galilee, and Peræa, together with Ituræa;—subsequently to which division, the various parts did not, in consequence, all share the same fate. Archelaus, by misgovernment, soon lost his portion (A. D. 6); Judea and Samaria were consequently annexed as a Roman province to Syria, and placed under procurators subordinate to the Syrian governors. Among the procurators, the most famous is Pontius Pilate, about A. D. 27—36, under whom Jesus Christ, the founder of our religion, appeared and suffered, not as a political—although accused of *being so*—but as a moral reformer. On the other hand, Philip retained his tetrarchy until his death,

A. D. 34, when his country had the same lot with Judea and Samaria. Soon after, that is to say, in A. D. 37, it was, however, given by Caligula, with the title of king, to Agrippa (grandson to Herod, by Aristobulus), as a recompense for his attachment to the family of Germanicus; and when Antipas, who wished to procure a similar favour for himself, but instead of it was deposed (39), Agrippa received his tetrarchy also (40), and soon afterwards, by the possession of the territory which had belonged to Archelaus, became master of the whole of Palestine. Agrippa having died in A. D. 44, the whole country, being appended to Syria, became a Roman province, and received procurators; although Chalcis (49), and subsequently, also (53), Philip's tetrarchy, were restored as a kingdom to his son, Agrippa II., A. D. 90. The oppression of the procurators, and of Gessius Florus in particular, who obtained the office, A. D. 64, excited the Jews to rebellion, which (70) ended in the capture and destruction of their city and temple by Titus. The spread of the Jews over the whole civilized world of that time, although previously commenced, was by this event still further increased; and, at the same time, the extension of Christianity was prepared and facilitated. Even after the conquest, Jerusalem not only continued to exist as a city, but was also still considered by the nation as a point of union; and the attempt, under Adrian, to establish a Roman colony there, produced a fearful insurrection, during which Judea was almost depopulated."—*Heeren.*]

SECTION XXXV.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

[*Geographical outline of Ancient Italy:—*

1. Boundaries. N. *Alps*; S. *Mediterranean*; E. *Adriatic*.
2. Mountain ranges; *the Apennines*.
3. Rivers; *the Po*; *the Adige*; *the Tiber*.
4. The soil; the most fertile in Europe.

5. DIVISIONS:

- a. *Upper Italy*, from the Alps to the small rivers Rubicon and Macra, comprising *Gallia Cisalpina*, or *Togata* and *Liguria*.
- b. *Central*, from the Rubicon and Macra down to the Silarus and Frento, comprising six countries; *Etruria*, *Latium*, and *Campania*, on the west; *Umbria*, *Picenum*, and *Samnium*, on the east.
- c. *Lower*, or *Magna Græcia*, from the Silarus and Frento to the southern land's-end, comprising *Lucania*, *Bruttium*, west; *Apulia* and *Calabria*, east.
- d. *Islands*; *Sicily*, *Sardinia*, and *Corsica*.]

1. IN the delineation of ancient history, Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention; and *the history* of this empire, in its progress to universal dominion, and afterwards in its decline and fall, involves a collateral ac-

count of all the other nations of antiquity which in those periods are deserving of our consideration.

2. Although we cannot conjecture with certainty as to the era when Italy was first peopled, we have every reason to believe that it was inhabited by a refined and cultivated nation many ages before the Roman name was known. These were the Etruscans (or Tuscans),* of whom there exist at this day monuments in the fine arts, which prove them to have been a splendid, luxurious, and highly polished people. Their alphabet, resembling the Phœnician, disposes us to believe them of eastern origin. The Roman historians mention them as a powerful and opulent nation long before the origin of Rome, 'Tuscorum ante Romanum imperium late terra marique opes patuere,' Lib. v. 33; and Dionysius of Halicarnassus deduces most of the religious rites of the Romans from Etruria. According to him, Etruria was divided into twelve districts, each ruled by an independent chief, called the Lucumo, but federally united for their mutual protection.

3. The rest of Italy was divided among a number of independent tribes or nations, comparatively in a rude and uncultivated state; Umbrians, Ligurians, Sabines, Veientes, Latins, Æqui, Volsci, &c. Latium, a territory of fifty miles in length, and sixteen in breadth, contained forty-seven independent cities or states; the other adjacent states were divided in the same manner—a state of society in which a constant predatory warfare is unavoidable.

4. The origin of the city and state of Rome is involved in great uncertainty. Dionysius supposes two cities of that name to have existed, and to have perished before the foundation of the city built by Romulus. The latter, according to Varro, whose computation is generally followed, was founded in 753 B. C. by a troop of shepherds or banditti, who peopled their new city by carrying off the wives and daughters of their neighbours the Sabines.

5. The great outlines of the first constitution of the Roman government, though generally attributed to the political abilities of Romulus, seem to have a natural foundation in the usages of barbarous nations, and in the state of manners which existed in Italy before the foundation of Rome.—[The people were divided into ten curiæ, and each curia into ten gentes (or probably each curia into ten decuriæ, and each decuria into an indefinite number of gentes)—a gens being an aggregate of persons (not necessarily related to one another), distinguished by a common name terminating in *ia*, as Junia, Cornelia;† and bound together by the joint performance of certain religious rites. Each curia had

* They were called by the Greeks, Tyrrhenians, or Tyrsenians; and by themselves, *Etrusci*.

† Thus in *Lucius Junius Brutus*, *Lucius* is the prenomen, answering to our Christian name; *Junius*, from the name of the gens (family, clan, or political division); and *Brutus*, the surname, on account of his feigned dullness.

also a distinguishing name, as Forenses, Rapta, &c.; and formed a separate corporation, having a common hall in which the members met for civil and religious purposes, with a president (*curio*) who performed the sacred rites. Each gens had an alderman (*decurio*), and these formed the senate of one hundred members, who deliberated on all affairs of state, and reported their opinion to the people in the *comitia curiata*, or public assembly, which possessed the sovereign power of finally determining in all matters of public importance.†

6. [Romulus warred with his neighbours, but succeeded in promoting an union with the Sabines and with a tribe of Etruscans. The Roman state was then composed of three tribes, the Ramnes, Titiens, and Luceres, or Ramnenses, Titienses and Luce-rensens; so called from Romulus, Titius the Sabine king, and Lucumo, the title of the chief of each Etruscan state: each tribe was divided into ten *curiæ*, and each curia into ten gentes; in all, thirty *curiæ*, and three hundred gentes or clans. The Ramnes dwelt on the Palatine hill; the Titiens, on the hills Saturnius and Quirinalis; and the Luceres, on the Caelian hill. The amalgamation of the three tribes did not take place at once. When the Sabines united, they obtained equal political rights, which increased the senate to 200; but at the death of Romulus, the Luceres had no representation in that body. Romulus is said to have divided the land into three portions; one for the support of the government; another for the maintenance of religion; and the third he divided equally among the citizens. He was a just king, and successful in his wars; but after reigning thirty-seven years, he is supposed to have fallen a victim to treason. The people revered his memory, and enrolled him among the number of their deities by the title of Quirinius.]

7. The king had the privilege of assembling the people, and a right of appeal in all questions of importance. He had the command of the army, which at first comprehended the whole body of the people. He was chief priest, or *Pontifex Maximus*, and regulated everything that concerned, or was even remotely connected with, religion. He had, as a guard, twelve lictors; and to these he added a troop of 300 horsemen, named *Celeres* or *Equites* (Roman knights), being one from each gens or clan. These regulations are of positive institution; others arose naturally from the state of society.

† It was formerly the opinion, that the kings appointed the senators; but the researches of Niebuhr and others have shown that the populus of Rome was the real sovereign, that all the powers which the king possessed were delegated to him by the populus, and that the senate was a representative body. Niebuhr thinks that each gens sent its decurio or alderman to represent it in the senate; whilst Goettling supposes that a curia was divided into ten decuriæ, and that there were an indefinite number of gentes in a decuria, which admitted of the incorporation of new families of burghers or citizens; therefore the alderman of the decuria was the representative in the senate. The senators held their office for life. At this time, when the Roman state consisted of one tribe, it is believed that equal political rights were enjoyed by all; but this equality did not long continue.

8. The *patria potestas*, or the sovereign power which every father of a family enjoyed over his household, is of the latter nature, being common to all barbarous tribes.—The limitation of all arts to the slaves arose from the constant employment of the citizens in warfare or in agriculture.

9. The Sabines were the most formidable enemy of the early Romans; and a wise policy united for a while the two nations into one state. After the death of Romulus, there was an interregnum of a year; when Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, was elected king. His disposition was pious and pacific, and he endeavoured to give his people the same character. He pretended to divine inspiration (received from the nymph Egeria), in order to give the greater authority to his laws, which in themselves were excellent. He multiplied the national gods, built temples, and instituted different classes of priests—*Feciales*, *Flamines*, *Salii* (*a saliendo*), and a variety of religious ceremonies. The *Feciales* were employed as heralds to demand satisfaction for public injuries, and to declare war when it was refused; the *Flamines* (so called from the flame-coloured tufts upon their caps) officiated each in the service of a particular deity; the *Salii* guarded the sacred buckler, which was said to have dropped from heaven, together with eleven others that had been made exactly like it, lest it should be lost or stolen; the *Vestals* cherished the sacred fire; the *Augurs* and *Aruspices* divined future events from the flight of birds and the entrails of victims. He built the temple of Janus, which was kept open during war, and shut during peace. Most of the institutions of this prince were calculated to encourage the pacific spirit; and his policy consisted in using religion as an instrument of government.—Numa reformed the calendar, regulating the year at twelve lunar months, and distinguished the days for civil occupation (*Fasti*) from those dedicated to religious rest (*Nefasti*). Agriculture was lawful on the latter, as a duty of religion. Numa reigned forty-three years, during the whole of which time the temple of Janus remained shut; so much does the disposition of a people depend on the character of a sovereign.

10. Tullus Hostilius, the third king of Rome, was of Latin descent, and of a warlike disposition. He subdued the Albans, Fidenates, and other neighbouring states.—[The Alban war was terminated by the celebrated combat of the Horatii and Curiatii, the three twin-brothers from each army. Tullus destroyed the city of Alba and removed the inhabitants to Rome. They are said to have been as numerous as the previous inhabitants, but only the most distinguished were admitted to equal political rights; the others were made dependent on the burghers, the *populus Romanus*: the dependent Albans were free personally, but not citizens. From this time the Roman state consisted of two classes, one that had, and another that had not, a share in

the sovereign power—a ruling class or aristocracy, and a commonalty without political rights.* The Sabines had separated from the Romans in this reign, and were among the most powerful of their enemies. Tullus was killed by lightning in the thirty-third year of his reign. The temple of Janus was opened, and was not shut during his whole reign.]

11. Ancus Martius, a Sabine, the grandson, by his mother, of Numa, was elected king on the death of Tullus. He inherited the piety and virtues of his grandfather, and joined to these the talents of a warrior. He promoted the religious instruction of the people. He conquered the Latins, and removed them to Rome, dividing their lands—which extended to the sea—among the people (the burghers). He enlarged and fortified the city, and built the port of Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber. He reigned gloriously twenty-four years.

12. Tarquinius Priscus, the son of a citizen of Corinth and a noble Etruscan lady, popular from his wealth and liberality, was elected to the vacant throne, in preference to the sons of Ancus. In his reign the senate was increased by 100 members, the representatives of the Luceres (Etruscans), who were then placed on an equality with the other two tribes. These new senators were termed "*Patres minorum gentium*." This body now consisted of 300, at which number it remained for some centuries. Tarquin also doubled the number of the horsemen in the three tribes; and obtained the admission of a large body of the plebes,

* It was formerly supposed that the first senators were the founders of the patrician families; but Niebuhr has established, that at this period the senators were merely the representatives for life of the respective aggregate bodies of citizens, which comprised the gentes or clans; that there was no inequality among the citizens; and that the patricians were the whole body of Roman citizens or burghers (the *populus Romanus*).

The relation of the original Plebes or commons of Rome, who were not members of a gens, nor had any share of the political franchise, are thus described by Dr Arnold:—"This population had no connection with the houses (*gentes*) separately, but only with the state composed of these houses; this was wholly a political, not a domestic relation; it united personal and private liberty with political subjection. This inferior population possessed property, regulated their own municipal as well as domestic affairs, and as free men fought in the armies of what was their common country. But, strictly, they were not citizens; they could not intermarry with the houses: they could not belong to the state, for they belonged to no house, and therefore to no curia, and no tribe; consequently they had no share in the state's government, nor in the state's property. What the state conquered in war became the property of the state, and therefore they had no claim to it; with the state demesne—with whatever, in short, belonged to the state in its aggregate capacity—these, as being its neighbours merely, and not its members, had no concern."—*History of Rome*, i. 27.

So far as our extant ancient authorities show, the origin of the clientela, and its true character, were unknown to them. It is probable that aggregate bodies of the commons were dependent on a gens, that they were the tenants of the lands which had fallen to its share, and that the representative or senator of the gens was their patron or political protector. The commons were not allowed to carry on commerce.

or commons, within the constitution, but still subordinate to the original burghers, or citizens (the *populus Romanus*). He was victorious in his wars with the Sabines and Latins, none daring to meet him in open battle. He adorned and improved the city with works of utility and magnificence. He caused the walls to be built of hewn stone: he built the *Circus Maximus*, or Hippodrome, for the celebration of public games, for races, and athletic exercises; the *Cloacæ*, those immense common sewers,* which lead to the belief that the new Rome had been built on the ruins of an ancient city of greater magnitude. He also commenced the building of the Capitol, on the top of the Tarpeian hill. Tarquinius was assassinated, at the instigation of the sons of Ancus Martius, in the thirty-eighth year of his reign.

13. Servius Tullius (a Tuscan), who had married the daughter of Tarquinius, secured by his own address, and the intrigues of his mother-in-law, his election to the vacant throne. He was a just and good king, and courted popularity by acts of munificence; discharging the debts of the poor; dividing among the ["commons the lands which had been conquered in war, and making many wise and good laws, to maintain the cause of the poor, and to stop the oppression of the rich;"] improving the city with useful edifices, and extending its boundaries. The new arrangement which he introduced in the division of the population into classes and centuries, is a proof of much political ability, and merits attention, as on it depended many of the revolutions of the republic.

14. From the time the Romans admitted the Sabines, the Luceres, and a part of the Albans, to the rights of citizens or burghers, the sovereign *populus* was composed of three tribes, each of which having an equal share in the government. Each tribe being divided into ten *curiæ*, and each *curia* having an equal vote in the *comitia*, or public assemblies, as each burgher had in his *curia*, all questions were decided by the majority of the suffrages of individuals. There was no pre-eminence or distinction between the *curiæ*; and the order in which they gave their votes was determined by lot. [This would have been a reasonable constitution, if the population had enjoyed equal political rights, and] so long as the fortunes of the citizens were nearly on a par; but, when riches came to be unequally divided, it was obvious that much inconvenience must have arisen from this equal partition of power, as the rich could easily, by bribery,

* The foundations of this work were laid about forty feet under ground. Its branches were carried under a great part of the city, and brought at last into one grand trunk (the *Cloaca Maxima*, sixteen feet in width, thirteen in depth, and arched over with hewn stone), which ran down into the Tiber, to the west of the Palatine hill. It thus drained the waters of the low grounds on both sides of the Palatine and the Aventine, and of the site of the forum between the Palatine and the Capitoline. The *Cloacæ* was not completed until the reign of the last Tarquin, who is supposed to have employed numbers of the commons in this work that had been reduced by him to a condition analogous to slavery.

command the suffrages of the poor.* Besides, all the taxes had hitherto been levied by the head, without any regard to the inequality of fortunes. This impolitic and unjust mode of assessment furnished to Servius an excellent pretext for an entire change of system. [His object seems to have been to unite in one body the *populus* (or patricians—the old burghers of the three tribes, who hitherto exclusively possessed the political franchise) with the *plebs*, or commonalty, who had grown up by their side, and to give the chief weight in the state to wealth and numbers, rather than to birth and family pretensions. With this view, he formed a plan, in virtue of which the people would vote on all important questions according to their equipments when on military service—in other words, according to their property. This arrangement considered the whole state as forming a regular army.]

15. All the inhabitants were next required, under a heavy penalty, to declare upon oath their names, dwellings, number of their children, and amount of their fortune; that the taxes and contributions might be regulated according to their wealth. After this numeration, or *census*, Servius divided the whole citizens, without distinction of rank, birth, or nation, into *four* tribes, named from the quarters where they dwelt, the *Palatine*, *Suburban*, *Collatine*, and *Esquiline*. These comprehended only such as dwelt within the city. He formed other *tribes* of such as lived without the walls, or in the country, and enjoyed the privilege of Roman citizens. These were called the *Rustic Tribes*, and are frequently mentioned in Roman history. Besides this local division, Servius distributed the whole people into *six classes*, and each class into several *centuries*, or portions of citizens, so called, not as actually consisting of 100, but as being obliged to furnish and maintain 100 men for the service of the state in time of war. [The cavalry included, first, the six equestrian centuries, or the *sex suffragia* which made up the body of the *populus* (burghers or patricians), and voted by themselves in the *comitia curiata*; to which were now added twelve centuries of plebian knights, selected from the richest members of the commonalty. The foot soldiers were organized in the following five classes:—1. Those whose property was at least 100,000 ases, or pounds of copper, were reckoned as *eighty* centuries. 2. Those worth 75,000, and under 100,000 ases, were *twenty* centuries. 3. Those worth 50,000, and under 75,000 ases, were *twenty* centuries. 4. Those worth 25,000, and under 50,000 ases, were *twenty* centuries. 5. Those worth 12,500, and under 25,000 ases, were *thirty*

* There can be no justice in depriving individuals of their political rights because they are poor, lest they might be intimidated or bribed. Those who offer or give bribes are more deserving of punishment than those who take them. A numerous constituency cannot be bribed without its being known, and every election obtained by such means ought to be invalid.

centuries. Those whose property fell short of 12,500 ases were considered as supernumeraries to the fifth class. Those who had more than 1,500 ases were still reckoned amongst the tax-payers, and were formed into *two* centuries, called the *Accensi* and *Velati*. They followed the army without bearing arms, being only required to fill up the places of those who fell. Below these came *one* century of the *Proletarii*, whose property was between 1,500 and 375 ases. These paid no taxes, and, in ordinary times, had no military duty; but, on great emergencies, arms were furnished them by the government, and they were called out as an extraordinary levy. *One* century more included all whose property was less than 375 ases, and who were called *Capite Censi*; and from these last no military service was at any time required, as we are told, till a late period of the republic. All these classes were classed according to their property; but besides these, there were *three* centuries, which were classed according to their occupations. The *fabri*, or carpenters, the *cornicines*, or horn blowers: the *tubicines*, or *littores*, or trumpet-bearers: the first of these was attached to the centurion of the first class; the other two to the fourth. There were in all 18 centuries—18 of cavalry, 140 of heavy infantry, 10 of light infantry, 4 of reserve and camp followers, and 2 of engineers and musicians. The soldiers of the first class had to provide themselves with a complete suit of bronze armour, a shield, and a pike, the arms used in the front rank of the legion; the second and third classes were allowed to purchase a complete suit of bronze armour, and to bear a large throwing weapon, called a *javelin*; the fourth class provided no defensive armour, and carried a spear and javelin. These four classes were divided into centuries, according to the number of centuries of which the legion was composed. The first class was provided with three and a half centuries, the second with two, the third with one, and the fourth with one. The comparative value of the Roman soldier of this period is uncertain; but he was not a professional soldier, and he was not provided with a complete suit of bronze armour, as the Greek soldier was. It was not evident that the Roman soldier was a professional soldier, and he was not provided with a complete suit of bronze armour, as the Greek soldier was. It was not evident that the Roman soldier was a professional soldier, and he was not provided with a complete suit of bronze armour, as the Greek soldier was.

16. The comparative value of the Roman soldier of this period is uncertain; but he was not a professional soldier, and he was not provided with a complete suit of bronze armour, as the Greek soldier was. It was not evident that the Roman soldier was a professional soldier, and he was not provided with a complete suit of bronze armour, as the Greek soldier was.

unanimous, the second came to have a vote; and it was very rarely that the inferior classes were ever called upon to exercise their right of suffrage. Thus, although the whole people were represented in the *Comitia Centuriata*, yet, in reality, as the votes were given by centuries, the richer classes determined every question, the suffrage of the poor being merely nominal; for as the whole people formed 195 centuries, and the first and second classes contained 100 of these, a majority was easily secured. Thus, in the *Comitia Centuriata*, in which the chief magistrates were elected, peace and war decreed, and all other important business discussed, the richer classes of the citizens had secured to them a preponderance of authority, the votes of the poor, or centuries, being seldom required. And such was the ingenuity of this policy, that all were pleased with it: the rich paid their taxes with cheerfulness, as the price of their power; [and the mass of the inhabitants of Rome were satisfied, as their political status did not depend on birth, but on property—a distinction which has everywhere been willingly submitted to. It is important to bear in mind, that until this time, the political franchise was in the descendants of the old burghers, who were the patricians, irrespective of any property qualification.*] The census was taken every five years, and closed by a *lustrum*, or expiatory sacrifice, which consisted of a bull, a ram, and a hog; and hence that period of time was called a *lustrum*.

17. Servius, a genuine and enlightened patriot, was assassinated, after a reign of forty-four years, at the instigation of his infamous daughter, Tullia, and her husband, Tarquinius, the grandson of Priscus, who thus paved the way for his own elevation to the throne. The government of Tarquin, surnamed the Proud, was systematically tyrannical. ["He despised the senators, and made no more senators in the place of those whom he slew, or who died in the course of nature. He grievously oppressed the poor, and he took away all the good laws of king Servius, and let the rich oppress the poor, as they had done before the days of Servius. He made the people labour at his great works; he made them build his temple, and dig and construct his drains; and he laid such burdens on them, that many slew themselves for very misery."†] This sanguinary tyrant was

* "As Servius had made the commons (plebes) an order of the state, so he gave them judges out of their own body to try all civil causes; whereas before they had no jurisdiction, but referred all their suits either to the king or to the houses (gentes). These judges were, as Niebuhr thinks, the *centumviri*, the hundred men, of a later period, elected three from each curia; so that, in the time of Servius, their number would probably have been ninety."—*Arnold's History of Rome*, Vol. I, p. 77.

† During this tyranny, the institutions of Servius were swept away; the tables on which they were written destroyed and abolished; the whole system of the census, and consequently the arrangement of the classes. Tarquin was supported in these measures by the aristocratical brotherhood (the old burgher *gentes*, or clans), who were pledged to one another for the interests of their order, and ready to support those interests by any crime. Like Sylla, in after times, Tarquin crushed the liberties of the commons; but, unlike that tyrant, he preferred himself to his order, when the two came into competition. Thus Tarquin became hated by all that was

suffered to reign for twenty-four years, and was at last punished for a crime which was not his own. His son Sextus, equally lawless and cruel, had committed a rape on the wife of Collatinus, who, unable to survive her dishonour, stabbed herself in the presence of her husband and kindred. This roused their vengeance, and procured, by their influence with their countrymen, the expulsion of the tyrant, and the utter abolition of the regal dignity at Rome (509 B. C.), which had subsisted for 244 years.

18. *Reflections on the Government and State of Rome during the Period of the Kings.*—The whole structure of the constitution of the Romans under the monarchy has been by most authors erroneously attributed exclusively to the abilities of Romulus, a youth of eighteen, the leader of a troop of shepherds, or banditti. This chimerical idea we owe to Dionysius, of Halicarnassus. The truth is, the Roman government, like almost every other, was the gradual result of circumstances—the fruit of time, and of political emergency.

19. The constitution of the Roman senate has occasioned considerable research, and is not free from obscurity. It is probable that the kings had the right of naming [confirming the election of] the senators, that the consuls succeeded them in this right; and afterwards, when these magistrates found too much occupation from the frequent wars in which the state was engaged, that privilege devolved on the censors. The senators [during the monarchy] were always chosen from the body of the patricians; that is, out of those descended from the original burghers (the members of a gens, the citizens, or nobility*); but afterwards the plebeians (or commonalty) acquired an equal title to that dignity. In the early periods of the republic, the authority of the senate was very extensive. No assembly of the people (burghers) could be called together but by the senate's authority; nor were the *plebiscita*, or *decrees of the people*, of any weight till confirmed by a second decree of the senate. Hence the early constitution of the republic was rather aristocratical than democratical. From this extensive power of the senate, the first diminution was made by the creation of the Tribunes of the people (493 B. C.); and other retrenchments successively took place, till the people (commons) acquired at length the predominant power in the state. Yet the senate, even after every usurpation on their authority, continued to have, in many points,

good and noble amongst the gentes, as well as by the commons. But the evil of his tyranny survived him; it was not so easy to restore what he had destroyed as to expel him and his family. The commons no longer stood beside the patricians (the descendants of the original burghers) as an equal order, free, wealthy, well armed, and well organized; they were now poor, ill armed, and with no bonds of union: they naturally sank beneath the power of the nobility (patrician families); and the revolution which drove out the Tarquins established at Rome, not a free commonwealth, but an exclusive and tyrannical aristocracy.—See Arnold's *Rome*, I., p. 82.

* "I cannot too often remind the reader, that in this early period of Roman history these three terms were synonymous."—Dr Arnold.

a supremacy. They regulated all matters regarding religion; they had the custody of the public treasure; they superintended the conduct of all magistrates; they gave audience to ambassadors, decided on the fate of vanquished nations, disposed of the governments of the provinces, and took cognizance, by appeal, in all crimes against the state. In great emergencies, they appointed a Dictator, with absolute authority. Such were the acknowledged powers of the Roman senate through the whole period of the commonwealth.

20. At the period of the abolition of the regal government, the territory of the Romans was extremely limited. It is said to have been only forty miles in length and thirty in breadth. The only use they yet made of their victories was to naturalize the inhabitants of some of the conquered states, and so increase their population. By this wise policy they became a powerful state, though within a narrow territory; because their strength was always superior to their enterprises. In this manner they laid a solid foundation for the future extension of their empire.

21. In the accounts given by historians of the strength of the armies, both of the Romans in those early times, and of the neighbouring states their enemies, we have every reason to believe there is much exaggeration. The territories from which those armies were furnished, were incapable of supplying them.

22. In the continual wars in which the republic was engaged, the Romans were most commonly the aggressors. The causes of this seem to have been the ambition of the consuls to distinguish their short administration by some splendid enterprise, and the wish of the senate to give the people occupation, to prevent intestine disquiets.

23. The regal government subsisted 244 years, and during all that time only seven kings reigned, several of whom died a violent death, and the last of them lived thirteen years after his expulsion. This statement is extraordinary, and is calculated to throw doubt on the authenticity of this period of the Roman history. It is allowed that, for the first five centuries after the building of Rome, there were no historians. The first Roman who undertook to write the history of his country was Fabius Pictor, who lived during the second Punic war, to which period he brought down his history, 218 B. C.; but the materials from which it was compiled were, according to Dionysius, in a great measure traditionary reports. Livy says that almost all the ancient records were destroyed by fire when Rome was taken by the Gauls (390 B. C.), and therefore, with great candour, states that he does not warrant the authenticity of what he relates of those ancient times.

SECTION XXXVI.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

Rome an Aristocratic Republic, under two Consuls annually elected.

Year of Rome, 245. B. C. 508.

1. THE regal government being abolished, it was agreed to commit the supreme authority to two magistrates, who should be annually elected by the people (burghers, or patricians) from their own order.* To these they gave the name of *Consules*; "a modest title," says Vertot, "which gave to understand that they were rather the counsellors of the republic than its sovereigns; and that the only point they ought to have in view was its preservation and glory." But, in fact, their authority differed scarcely in any thing from that of the kings. They had the supreme administration of justice, the disposal of the public money, the power of convoking the senate and assembling the people, raising armies, naming all the officers, and the right of making peace, war, and alliance. The only difference was, that their authority was limited to a year. They wore the purple robe; they had the *sella curulis*, or ivory chair of state; and each of them was attended by twelve lictors, armed with the *fascēs*, the symbols of their power of life and death.

2. The first consuls were Lucius Junius Brutus and Lucius Tarquinius Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia [and nephew of king Tarquin. In consequence of this relationship, Collatinus was afterwards requested to resign and to leave Rome, when all the clan (gens) Tarquini were banished, even though they were not of the king's family. Publius Valerius was elected by the centuries in the room of Collatinus.] Tarquin was at this time in Etruria, where he prevailed upon two of the most powerful cities, Veii and Tarquinii, to espouse his cause. He had likewise his partizans at Rome; and a plot was formed to open the gates to receive him. It was detected; and Brutus had the mortification to find his two sons, and the nephews of

* "The commons, immediately after the revolution, recovered some of the rights of which the last king had deprived them; and these rights were such as did not interfere with the political ascendancy of the patricians, but yet restored to the commons their character of an order—that is, a distinct body, with an internal organization of its own. The commons again chose their judges to decide ordinary civil causes when both parties belonged to their own order, and they again met in their Compitalia and Paganalia, the common festivals of the same neighbourhood in the city and in the country. (These had been instituted by Servius, to give an organization to the commons.) They also gained the important privilege of being, even in criminal matters, judges of their own members, in case of an appeal from the sentence of the magistrate. As a burgher (patrician) might appeal to the people, or great council of burghers (in the *Comitia Curiata*), so a commoner might appeal to the commons assembled in their tribes; and thus, in this respect, the two orders of the nation (state) were placed on a footing of equality. It is also said that a great many of the richest families of the commons, who belonged to the centuries of the knights or horsemen, were admitted as new patrician houses (*gentes*) into the order of the patricians, or burghers, or people of Rome; for I must again observe, that the Roman people, or burghers, and the Roman commons, will still, for a long period, require to be carefully distinguished from each other."—Arnold, I., p. 124.

Collatinus, in the number of the conspirators. Brutus himself sat in judgment upon his sons, and condemned them to be beheaded in his presence: "Exiit patrem ut consulem ageret; orbisque vivere, quam publicæ vindictæ deesse maluit."* Such is the reflection of Valerius Maximus; but that of Livy is more natural: "Quum inter omne tempus pater, vultusque et os ejus spectaculo esset, eminente animo patrio, inter publicæ pœnæ ministerium."†

3. Tarquin now determined on war; and, at the head of the armies of Veii and Tarquinii, he marched against the Romans. He was opposed by the consuls Brutus and Publius Valerius; and in the battle which ensued, Brutus was killed. The contest was doubtful; but the Romans claimed the victory, and Valerius was the first Roman who enjoyed the splendid reward of a triumph. A higher honour was paid to the memory of Brutus, for whom the whole city went into mourning for ten months. [Valerius ruled for some time alone, which led to the supposition that he wished to make himself king. To regain his popularity, he proposed a law, "that whoever should try to make himself king, should be accursed, and whoever would, might slay him;"] also another law, termed from him the Valerian, which "permitted any citizen who had been condemned to death by a magistrate, or even to banishment or scourging, to appeal to the people, and required their consent previously to the execution of the sentence." This law gave the first blow to the exclusive power of the aristocracy (the burghers), in the constitution of the Roman republic. Marcus Horatius was afterwards elected his colleague for the remainder of the first year, 506 B. C.

4. For thirteen years after the expulsion of Tarquin, the Romans were involved in continual wars on his account. Of these the most remarkable was that with the Etrurians under Porsena, who took Rome and was acknowledged king by the senate. But this subjection did not last long. The Etruscan power was broken by the defeat before Aricia, which obliged Porsena to withdraw from the city. This war was fertile in exploits of romantic heroism—such as the defence of a bridge by Horatius Cocles, and the attempt of Mutius Scævola to assassinate Porsena.

5. Soon after this period began those domestic disorders which continued long to embroil the republic. Great complaints had arisen among the commons, both on account of the inequality of property from the partial distribution of the conquered lands, which the burghers or patricians generally contrived to engross to themselves, and from the harsh policy by

* "He sacrificed the feelings of a father to the obligations of chief magistrate, and preferred a childless old age to any failure of his duty to the state."

† "While all the time his looks betrayed the feelings of a father, the pure patriotism of his soul prevailed in the administration of justice."

which it was in the power of creditors to reduce to a state of slavery their insolvent debtors. As there was no law which limited the rate of interest on borrowed money, the poor, when once reduced to the necessity of contracting even trifling debts, were left entirely at the mercy of their creditors. These grievances, felt in common by a large proportion of the commons, excited much discontent, which, from complaints long disregarded, grew at length into a spirit of determined resistance. [The causes which led to this distress were the plundering invasions of the neighbouring nations, and the actual loss of their lands, which were taken from them by the Etruscans. "The burghers suffered less, because their resources were greater; the public undivided land, which they alone enjoyed, was of a very different extent from the little lots assigned to each commoner; and, besides, as being chiefly let in pasture, it suffered much less from the incursions of an enemy: a burgher's cattle might often be driven off in time to one of the neighbouring strongholds, while a commoner's corn and fruit-trees were totally destroyed. Thus, it is easy to conceive how, on the one hand, the commoner would be driven to borrow; and on the other, how the burgher would be able to lend."* Probably the payment of rent was often insisted on, although the crops of the tenants were destroyed.] The wars required new levies, and the senate ordered the plebeians to arm in defence of the common liberties; but the plebeians positively refused to enrol their names, declaring that they knew no liberties to defend, unless the senate should put an end to their oppression, by decreeing at once an abolition of all the debts due by the poor to the rich. The emergency was critical, as the enemy was at the gates of Rome. The consuls found their authority of no avail; for the Valerian law had given any citizen condemned by them a right of appeal to the assembly of the people (of their own order). To evade the force of this law, an extraordinary measure was necessary; and a Dictator (the Master of the burghers) was created for the first time—a magistrate who, for the period of six months, was invested with absolute and unlimited authority. The senate appointed one of the consuls, Clelius, to choose the dictator, which was always afterwards the form; and he named his colleague, Titus Lartius Flavius (497 B. C.). Lartius, nominated to this high office, armed the twenty-four lictors with axes, summoned the whole people to the Comitia, and calling over the names, under the penalty of death to any one who should dare to murmur, enrolled all such as he judged most fit for the service of their country. He was successful against the enemy; and, returning to Rome, abdicated his authority. This expedient became henceforward a frequent and certain resource in all seasons of public danger. In the following year Aulus Posthumius was chosen

* Arnold.

dictator, who gained an important victory (near the lake Regillus), in which the two sons of Tarquin, Sextus and Titus, were slain. This put an end to all his prospects. He retired to Cumæ, in Campania, where he died at the age of ninety; and the thirty allied Latin states then concluded peace with the Romans, on terms of perfect equality, 492 B. C.; year of Rome, 261.

6. The death of Tarquin removed one check against the tyranny of the higher over the lower orders; for the latter had hitherto kept alive a salutary apprehension, that, in case of extreme oppression, they would be under the necessity of calling back their king. When this fear was at an end, the domineering spirit of the patricians, exceeding every bound both of good policy and humanity, drove the people at length to deeds of mutiny and rebellion. An alarm from the enemy gave full weight to their power, and made the chief magistrates of the state solemnly engage their honour to procure a redress of their grievances, as soon as the public danger was at an end. The promise, either from a failure of will or of power, was not fulfilled, and this violation of faith drove the people at length to extremities. Bound by their military oath not to desert their standards, they carried them along with them; and the whole army, in military array, under Sicinius Bellutus, withdrew from Rome, and deliberately encamped on the Mons Sacer, at three miles distance from the city (beyond the limits of the *Ager Romanus*, the proper territory of the burghers); and here they were soon joined by the greatest part of the commons. This resolute procedure had its desired effect. The senate deputed ten persons, the most respectable of their order, with plenary powers; and these, seeing no medium of compromise, granted to the people all their demands. The obligations of insolvent debtors were solemnly abolished, and all those who had been assigned over to the power of their creditors were released; and for the security of their privileges in future, they were allowed the right of choosing magistrates of their own order, who should have the power of opposing with effect every measure which they should judge prejudicial to their interests. These were the Tribunes of the people (so called from having been first selected from among the *tribuni militum* of the different legions), chosen annually; at first five in number, and afterwards increased to ten. Without guards or tribunal, and having no seat in the senate-house, they had yet the power, by a single *veto*, to suspend or annul the decrees of the senate, and the sentences of the consuls. Their persons were declared inviolable; but their authority was confined to the bounds of the city, and a mile beyond the walls. The tribunes demanded and obtained two magistrates to assist them in their office: these were termed *Ædiles*, from the charge committed to them of the buildings of the city; and afterwards they had likewise the care of the games, spectacles, and other matters of police within the city (493 B. C.).

7. From this era (260 years from the foundation of Rome, and sixteen years after the abolition of the regal government) we date the commencement of the popular constitution of the Roman republic—a change operated by the unwise policy of the patricians themselves, who, by yielding to just complaints, and humanely redressing flagrant abuses, might have easily anticipated every ground of dissatisfaction. The first wish of the people was not power, but relief from tyranny and oppression; and had this been readily granted them, if not by abolishing the debts, at least by repressing enormous usury, and putting an end to the inhuman right of corporal punishment and the bondage of debtors, the people would have cheerfully returned to order and submission, and the Roman constitution have long remained, what we have seen it was at the commencement of the consular government, aristocratical. But a torrent imprudently resisted will, in time, acquire that impetuous force which carries everything before it. The commons (plebeians) having now obtained magistrates of their own order with those high powers, we shall see it become the main object with these magistrates to increase their authority by continual demands and bold encroachments. The commons, regarding them as the champions of their rights, and delighted to find themselves gradually approaching to an equality with the higher order (the burghers), and no longer bounding their desires to ease and security, are soon equally influenced by ambition as their superiors. While this people, borne down by injustice and oppression, seek no more than the redress of real grievances, and a share of ease and happiness as the members of a free state, we applaud their spirited exertions, and execrate that arbitrary and inhuman principle which prompted the higher order to treat them as slaves or inferior beings. But when we behold this people compassing at length the end they wished for—attaining ease and security, nay, power, which at first they had neither sought nor expected; when we see them, after this, increasing in their demands, assuming that arrogance they justly blamed in their superiors, goaded on by the ambition of their leaders to aim at tyrannizing in their turn; we view with proper discrimination the love of liberty and its extreme, licentiousness; and treat with just detestation the authors of those pernicious measures which embroiled the state in endless faction, and paved the way for the total loss of that liberty of which this deluded people knew not the value when they actually possessed it.

8. [It has to be observed, that “the particulars of this second revolution are as uncertain as those of the overthrow of the monarchy; but this much is certain, and is remarkable, that the commons sought safety, not victory; they desired to escape from Rome, *not to govern it*. They proposed to found a new

city of their own, beyond the limits of the *Ager Romanus*, the proper territory of the burghers, to which they would have gathered their families, and the rest of their order who were left behind in Rome, and have given up their old city to its original possessors, the burghers and their clients. But the burghers were as unwilling to lose the services of the commons as the Egyptians in the like case to let the Israelites go, and they endeavoured, by every means, to persuade them to return. To show how little the commons thought of gaining political power, we have only to notice their demands. They required a general cancelling of the obligations of insolvent debtors, and the release of all those whose persons, in default of payment, had been assigned over to the power of their creditors (and made their slaves); and further, they insisted on having two of their own body acknowledged by the burghers as their protectors. * * * To these terms the burghers agreed. A solemn treaty was concluded between them and the commons, as between two distinct nations; and the burghers swore for themselves, and for their posterity, that they would hold inviolable the persons of two officers, to be chosen by the centuries on the field of Mars, whose business it should be to extend full protection to any commoner against a sentence of the consul; that is to say, who might rescue a debtor from the power of his creditor, if they conceived it to be capriciously or cruelly exerted."—*Arnold*.

When such a protection was required against the law of debtor and creditor enacted by the burghers, or ruling body, it is not to be wondered that a struggle should afterwards take place to obtain equal political rights. It will take place, sooner or later, in every political community where exclusive privileges are hereditary. It must be borne in mind, that the Roman state, at this time, was the city of Rome, and a limited territory of a few miles around it. The neighbouring Etruscan districts had recovered their independence. The burghers, who claimed the exclusive right to enjoy the magistracy, the sacred offices, and others of power and emolument, were nothing more than the descendants of the original citizens, and those that had been admitted, by adoption or otherwise, since the destruction of Alba by Tullus Hostilius. They were the same as the old freemen of the city of York or the town of Liverpool (the joint proprietors of the corporate property), before the elective franchise was thrown open to all householders paying a certain rent. Then these burghers were the patricians; and from this time they are to be considered as the hereditary Roman aristocracy, with whom it was illegal for a commoner to contract a marriage—even with the poorest of them, until 445 B. C.]

SECTION XXXVII.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

The Law of Volero.

1. THE disorders of the commonwealth, appeased by the creation of the Tribunes, were but for a very short time suspended. It was necessary that the popular magistrates should make an experiment of their powers. In an assembly of the people, one of the consuls, interrupted by a tribune, rashly said, that had the tribunes convoked the assembly, he would not have interrupted them, and therefore *they* ought not to be interrupted. This was a concession on the part of the consuls, that the tribunes had the power of assembling the Comitia, a power which they themselves had never dreamt of, but which from that moment they assumed as their acknowledged right; and accordingly the tribunes summoned an assembly of the people to meet next day. It was a consequence of this right, that the affairs of the commonwealth should be agitated in those meetings, equally as in the assemblies held in virtue of a consular summons or senatorial decree; and thus there were, in a manner, two distinct legislative powers established in the republic.

2. [It was in the beginning of spring that the commons withdrew to the Mons Sacer, at a time when it was necessary to plough and sow the fields of the republic; and as the lands had lain neglected during these commotions, it was not surprising that the following harvest should be a season of great scarcity, and consequently of distress among the poorest, who never can obtain the necessary supply of food, unless there is enough in the state for all. Caius Marius (surnamed Coriolanus, from Corioli, a town of the Volsci, against which he had made a successful campaign), one of the most violent of the senators, proposed openly in the senate to take advantage of the necessities of the commons, to compel them to relinquish all pretensions to authority, and to abolish their new magistrates. The commons, exasperated at such a proposition, summoned him to appear before them and answer for his conduct. Coriolanus refused to appear, and was supported by his partisans among the patricians; but to appease the commons, he was first brought to trial in the senate, and then it was agreed to refer the consideration of the cause back to the people, when Coriolanus was condemned to perpetual exile. This contest with the patricians terminated in the establishment of the *comitia tributa*, in which the commons had the preponderance, 491 B. C. Now that the commons were actually in possession of political power, one of the consuls, Spurius Cassius, proposed in the senate to grant allotments of the undivided public land to relieve the poverty of those who united the two inconsistent characters of citizens and

beggars (485). Similar grants had been made during the monarchy, when new citizens were admitted; but on this occasion it was violently opposed by the aristocracy (the burghers). This Agrarian law is supposed by Niebuhr to have been enacted to allay the storm for the time, with the intention of fraudulently evading its execution. In the following year, Cassius was impeached before the burghers, found guilty of treason, scourged and beheaded, and his house razed to the ground—a fate which has too often befallen those who have sought to raise the condition of the people; and the execution of the law was resisted from year to year, which inflamed the passions of the rival orders.]

3. Volero Publilius, formerly a centurion, and a man distinguished for his military services, had, in the new levies, been ranked as a common soldier. Complaining of this unmerited degradation, he refused his services in that capacity; and the consuls having condemned him to corporal punishment, he appealed from their sentence to the commons. The contest lasted till the annual term of elections, when Volero himself was chosen a tribune of the people. [He was equal to the occasion; and taking advantage of the excitement of the moment, when the commons were enraged at the murder of the tribune Genucius, he had an ample revenge by procuring the enactment of a most important law. The *Comitia*, by centuries (of the whole people) and by *curiæ* (of the burghers), could not be called but in virtue of a decree of the senate, after consulting the auspices, which the priests could interpret as they pleased. In those *comitia* the tribunes had hitherto been elected, and the most important public affairs discussed; but it was always held necessary that the acts of these assemblies should be confirmed by the senate. The law of Volero enacted that the tribunes for the time to come should be chosen by the votes of the commons in their tribes, and not by those of the whole people in their centuries, with the right of discussing and deciding all national questions in their own assembly. The burghers and senate violently opposed the passing of a law so fatal to their power, but their opposition was ineffectual. From this period, the supreme authority in the Roman republic may be considered as having passed completely from the burghers into the hands of the commonalty. The Roman constitution was now plainly a democracy, 471 B.C.

ON THE AGRARIAN LAWS.

[“If, amongst Niebuhr’s countless services to Roman history, any single one may claim our gratitude beyond the rest, it is his explanation of the true nature and character of the Agrarian laws, which has already overthrown the deeply-rooted false impressions which prevailed universally on the subject.

“It seems to have been a notion generally entertained in the ancient world, that every citizen of a country should be a landholder, and that the

territory of a state, so far as it was not left unenclosed or reserved for public purposes, should be divided in equal portions amongst the citizens. But it would almost always happen that a large part of it was left unenclosed. The part thus left out of cultivation was mostly kept as pasture, and a revenue was raised from it, not only from every citizen who had turned out sheep or cattle upon it, but also from strangers, who, although incapable of buying land, might yet rent a right of pasture for their flocks and herds. But when a new territory was gained in war, the richer parts of it already in cultivation were too valuable to be given up to pasture; while, on the other hand, if they were divided, the division could only follow the general rule, and allot an equal portion to every citizen. In these circumstances it was the practice at Rome, and doubtless in other states of Italy, to allow individuals to occupy such lands, and to enjoy all the benefits of them on condition of paying to the state the tithe of the produce, as an acknowledgment that the state was the proprietor of the land, and the individual merely the occupier. With regard to the state, the occupier was merely a tenant at will; but with respect to other citizens, he was like the owner of the soil, and could alienate the land which he occupied either for a term of years or for ever, as much as if he had been its actual proprietor."

"Accordingly (on the above principle), most of the kings of Rome are said to have carried an Agrarian law—that is, to have divided a portion, more or less, of the public land amongst those whom they admitted to the rights of citizenship. Yet it was understood that these new citizens, the Roman commons, although they received their portion of land as freehold whenever the public land was divided, had still no right to occupy it (as they were not a part of the *populus*) while it lay in the mass unallotted; while the old burghers (the patricians or *patrixians*), who enjoyed exclusively the right of occupation with regard to the undivided public land, had no share in it whatever when it was divided, because they already enjoyed from ancient allotment a freehold property of their own. Thus the public land was wholly unprofitable to the commons, so long as it was undivided, and became wholly lost to the burghers (patricians), whenever it was divided."
—*Arnold, I., p. 156.*

That the cause of the violent hostility of the Roman aristocracy to Agrarian laws (the allotment of public lands to the commonalty) may be more completely understood, Dr Arnold has appended the following in a note:—

"Those who are acquainted with the affairs of the English universities will recollect the somewhat similar practice there with regard to fines. Whatever benefits arise out of the administration of the college property belong exclusively to the ruling part of the society; the fellows engross the fines to themselves, just as the burghers of Rome enjoyed the exclusive right of occupying the public lands. But the rents of college lands are divided in certain fixed proportions among the fellows and scholars, the *populus* and *plebs* of the society. And a law which should prohibit the practice of taking a fine on the renewal of college property, and should order the land to be let at its full value, in order to secure to the scholars their due share in all the benefits arising out of the college property would give no bad idea of the nature and objects of an Agrarian law at Rome."

Before the present municipal law, it was only the burghers (freemen or patricians) of corporate towns who had a right to graze their cattle on the public pastures. They naturally would have objected that the land should be enclosed and equally allotted among all the inhabitants: such was the policy of the burghers of Rome, which occasioned the most violent commotions in the state.]

SECTION XXXVIII.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

The Decemvirate.

1. THE Romans had, till this period, no body of civil laws. Under the regal government, the kings alone administered justice: the consuls succeeded them in this high prerogative; and thus possessed without control the absolute command of the fortunes and civil rights of all the citizens. To remedy this great defect, Caius Terentilius Harsa, a tribune, proposed the nomination of ten commissioners (five by the burghers, and five by the commons), to frame and digest a code of laws for the explanation and security of the rights of all orders of the state. A measure so equitable ought to have met with no opposition. It was, however, strenuously though ineffectually opposed by the patricians, who, by a fruitless contest, only exposed their own weakness. After contending for ten years, the commons conceded that ten commissioners, or *decemviri*, should be chosen; but the election being made in the *Comitia* by centuries from the patricians, who, by means of their numerous clients, were able to elect whom they pleased; the consul Appius Claudius (who had violently opposed the Volegian law), and his colleague Titus Genacius, were at the head of this important commission, and the other eight were also senators and consular persons, 450 B. C. The laws were framed—those celebrated statutes known by the name of the Twelve Tables, which are the basis of the great structure of the Roman jurisprudence.

2. An acquaintance with these ancient laws is therefore of importance. Even in the most flourishing times of the republic they continued to be of the highest authority. They have the encomium of Cicero himself; and we learn from him, that to commit these laws to memory was an essential part of a liberal education. From the twelve tables the *juris-consulti* composed a system of judicial forms for the regulation of the different tribunals. The number of the laws was likewise from time to time increased by the *Senatus-consulta* and *Plebiscita*; the first enacted by the sole authority of the senate; and the latter by the people, without the consent of the senate.

3. The decemvirs were invested with all the powers of government, for the consulate and all other authority but their own had ceased on their creation. Each decemvir by turn presided for a day, and had the sovereign authority, with its insignia, the *fascēs*. The nine others officiated solely as judges in the determination of law-suits, and the correction of abuses. An abuse, however, of the most flagrant nature, committed by the chief of their own number, was destined speedily to bring their office to its termination.

4. Appius Claudius, inflamed by lawless passion for the young Virginia, the betrothed spouse of Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, employed a profligate dependant to claim the maiden as his own property, on the false pretence of her being the daughter of one of his female slaves. The claim was made to the decemvir himself in judgment, who pronounced an infamous decree, which tore from her family this helpless victim, and put her into the hands of his own minion. Her father Virginius, to save the honour of his child, plunged a dagger into her breast; and turning to Appius, he cried, "On thee, and on thy head be the curse of this blood." Virginius then hastened to the army encamped at Tusculum, which declared against the decemviri, and began their march to Rome. The people, who had witnessed this shocking scene, would have massacred Appius on the spot, had he not found means to escape amidst the tumult. Their vengeance, however, was satisfied by the instant abolition of this hated magistracy, and by the death of Appius, who chose by his own hand to prevent the stroke of the executioner. His colleague Oppius, the chief abettor of his crimes, died in the same manner, and the rest went into voluntary exile, while their goods were forfeited to the public use. The decemvirate had subsisted for three years. The consuls were now restored, together with the tribunes, which re-instated the people at once to all their rights and privileges (448 B.C. and 305th year of Rome).

SECTION XXXIX.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

Increase of the Popular Power.

1. THE scale of the people was daily acquiring weight, at the expense of that of the patrician order. [The old laws for the security of personal liberty were confirmed afresh, and received a stronger sanction; and the new law proposed by the consul Valerius acknowledged the commons of Rome to be the Roman people, and that a Plebiscitum or decree of the commons should be equally binding on the whole people, after being confirmed by the senate, as the decrees of the comitia of centuries. These were followed by the Horatian and Duilian laws, which put an end to all exclusive magistracies, whether plebian or patrician, which were to be equally divided between both (447 B.C.). Thus the two orders were to be made equal to one another, but at the same time to be kept perpetually distinct, for one of the laws of the twelve tables, which had received the solemn sanction of the people, declared the marriage of a patrician with a plebian to be unlawful. These concessions were made by the patricians, as others had been before, to be an-

nulled on the first opportunity. They succeeded in preventing the new laws from being acted upon, even in the first year. Accordingly all things returned to their old state; except that the two orders were rendered more distinct than ever, by the positive law enacted by the decemviri, and introduced into the twelve tables, by which intermarriages between them were strictly forbidden. It was impossible that matters should so rest. The patricians attempted to follow up their success, which irritated the commons, and led to tumults. The commons again resorted to arms; when the Canulian law, which repealed the prohibition of intermarriages between the two orders, was carried without further opposition, 445;] and this concession had its usual effect of stimulating the people to inflexible perseverance in their struggle to bring into operation the Horatian and Duilian laws. On an emergence of war, the customary device was practised, of refusing to enter the rolls, unless upon the immediate enactment of a law, which should admit their capacity of holding all the offices of the republic. The senate sought a palliative, by the creation of six military tribunes in lieu of the consuls, three of whom should be patricians, and three plebeians (442). This measure satisfied the people for a time: the consuls, however, were restored within a few months.

2. The disorders of the republic, and frequent wars, had interrupted the regular survey or census of the citizens for a great many years. This was remedied by the creation of a new magistracy. Two officers, under the title of Censors, were appointed for five years (441 B. C. and 312th year of Rome), whose duty was not only to make the *census* every five years, but to inspect the morals and regulate the duties of all the citizens during their period of office: in virtue of this power, they kept in dependence both the senate and people. (Nine years after the institution of the censorship, the dictator Mamercus proposed and carried a law to limit the authority of the censors to eighteen months; and as they continued to be elected only at intervals of five years, this magistracy was always in abeyance for the last three years and a-half).* The censorship, from these extensive powers, was accounted the most honourable office of the commonwealth, and was exercised, in the latter times of the republic,

* The original duty of the censor was to take a register of the population and of their property. They divided it according to its civil distinctions, and drew up a list of the senators, of the equites, of the members of the several tribes, or of those who enjoyed the right of voting, and a list of the *ædriani*, consisting of those freedmen, naturalized strangers and others, who being enrolled in no tribe, possessed no vote in the comitia, but still enjoyed all the rights of Roman citizens; for the private rights of Roman citizens could not be taken away by any magistrate, unless convicted of crime. The authority of the censor only extended to such privileges as were strictly political. He could degrade any man from his rank for improper conduct in public or domestic life. He fixed the value of the property of individuals, which valuation was assessed to the property-tax. He had also the entire management of the regular revenues of the state, as the letting of the state demesnes, which included arable land, vineyards, pastures, forests, munes, harbours, fisheries, buildings, &c.

only by consular persons, and afterwards annexed to the supreme function of the emperors.

3. The dissensions between the orders continued with little variation either in their causes or effects. The people generally, as the last resource, refused to enrol themselves as soldiers, till overawed by the supreme authority of a dictator. To obviate the frequent necessity of this measure, which enforced at best an unwilling and compelled obedience, the senate had recourse to a wise expedient: this was to give a regular pay to the troops. To defray this expense, a moderate tax was imposed, in proportion to the fortunes of the citizens. From this period the Roman system of war assumed a new aspect. The senate always found soldiers at command; the army was under its control; the enterprises of the republic were more extensive, and its successes more signal and important. Veii, the proud rival of Rome, and its equal in extent and population, was taken by the dictator Camillus, after a siege of ten years; (year of Rome 359, and 394 B. C.) [After the fall of Veii, the patricians, considering themselves no longer obliged to conciliate the commons, recovered their old exclusive possession of the highest offices. Yet this period was by no means one of hopeless submission on the part of the commons. They demanded grants of land in the territory of Veii, which was conceded on a scale of unusual liberality. The lots consisted of seven jugera (equal to $4\frac{3}{4}$ acres); and not only fathers of families were considered in this grant, but they received in addition a like allotment for each free person in their household. Camillus was impeached by the tribunes for having appropriated secretly to his own use a portion of the plunder of Veii, when he withdrew from Rome, and incurred the forfeiture of all his civil rights.] The art of war was improved, as it now became a profession, instead of an occasional occupation. The Romans were, from this circumstance, an overmatch for all their neighbours. Their dominion, hitherto confined to the territory of a few miles, was now rapidly extended. It was impossible but the detached states of Italy must have given way before a people always in arms, and who, by a perseverance alike resolute and judicious, were equal to every attempt in which they engaged.

4. The taking of Veii was succeeded by a war with the Gauls. This formidable people, a branch of the great nation of the Celtæ, had opened to themselves a passage through the Alps at four different periods, and had been at this time established in the country between those mountains and the Appenines for about 200 years. Under the command of Brennus, they laid siege to the Etruscan Clusium; and this people, of no warlike turn themselves, solicited the aid of the Romans. The circumstances recorded of this war with the Gauls throw over it a cloud of fable and romance. *The formidable power of Rome is said to have been in a single campaign so utterly exhausted, that the Gauls*

entered the city without resistance, and burned it to the ground, the capitol excepted, 390 B. C.—[The capitol was blockaded for six or eight months, when it was raised on the payment of 1000 pounds' weight of gold. Even in accepting these terms, the Gaulish leader felt that he was admitting to mercy enemies whom he had wholly in his power. The story of the total destruction of the Gauls on their return home through Italy, is now believed to be one of those fabrications invented to lessen the humiliation of the Romans.] To the burning of the city by the Gauls, the Roman writers attribute the loss of all the records and monuments of their early history.

5. It is singular, that most of the Roman revolutions should have owed their origin to women. From this cause we have seen spring the abolition of the regal office and the decemvirate. From this cause arose the change of the constitution, by which the plebeians became capable of holding the highest offices of the commonwealth. The younger daughter of Fabius Ambustus, married to a plebeian, envious of the honours of her elder sister, the wife of a patrician, stimulated her father to rouse the commons to a resolute purpose of asserting their equal right with the patricians to all the offices and dignities of the state. After much turbulence and contest, the final issue was the admission of the plebeians, first to the consulate, and afterwards to the censorship, the prætorship, and priesthood (A. U. C. 454, and B. C. 300);—a change beneficial in the main, as consolidating the strength of the republic, and cutting off the principal source of intestine disorder. The factions of the state had hitherto confined the growth of its power, its splendour, and prosperity; for no state can at once be prosperous and anarchical. We shall now mark the rapid elevation of the Roman name and empire.

SECTION XL.

CONQUEST OF ITALY BY THE ROMANS. *

1. THE war with the Samnites* now began (343), and continued, with but short intermissions, till 290; but its successful termination was speedily followed by the reduction of all the states of

* The Samnites inhabited the mountainous country, now called the *Matese*, nearly due north of Naples. On more than three-fourths of its circumference, it is bounded by the Valturno and its tributary streams, the Calore and the Tamaro, which send their waters into the Lower or Tyrrhenean Sea; but on its northern side, its springs and torrents run down into the Biferno, and so make their way to the Adriatic. The circumference of the Matese, as above described, is between seventy and eighty miles.

The Samnites made a noble resistance. During the second war, two consular armies were obliged to surrender in the pass of Caudium, now called the valley of *Arpaia*, through which the modern road from Naples to Benevento runs. The conditions granted by Pontius, the Samnite general, were, that the towns and the territory taken by the Romans should be restored, and that their colonists settled

Italy. In the course of this important war, the Tarentines, the allies of the Samnites, sought the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, one of the greatest generals of his age. Pyrrhus landed in Italy with 30,000 men and a train of elephants, 280 B. C. He was at first successful: the elephants in his army were a novel sight to the Romans, and gave him a great advantage, but no longer than until a short experience reconciled the Romans to this new mode of war; and every campaign proved more and more unsuccessful. Sensible at length of the difficulties of his enterprise, and dreading a fatal issue, he embraced an invitation from the Sicilians to aid them in a war with Carthage. On this pretext, which at least was not dishonourable, Pyrrhus withdrew his troops from Italy, 278 B. C. In this interval, the Romans reduced the Samnites, the Tarentines, and the other allied states, to extremity. Pyrrhus returned after an absence of two years, and made a last effort near Beneventum, 275 B. C. He was totally defeated, lost 26,000 men, and, abandoning at once all farther views on Italy, returned with precipitation to his own dominions. The hostile states submitted to the victorious power; and Rome, 480 years from the foundation of the city, was now mistress of all Italy.

2. The policy observed by the Romans, with respect to the conquered nations, was wise and judicious. They removed to Rome all the leading men of the principal conquered cities, admitting these into the ancient urban and rustic tribes, and thus soothing the pride of the vanquished by giving them an apparent share in their own domestic government; while, in arranging the constitution of the cities, they filled their magistracies with illustrious Romans, whose abilities and influence were fitted to maintain those new provinces in allegiance to the Roman government.

3 Sicily had long been considered as the granary of Italy. The Carthaginians at this time possessed considerable settlements in the island, and were ambitious of acquiring its entire dominion. An obvious policy led the Romans to dispute with them this important acquisition, and gave rise to the Punic wars. This leads, by a natural connection, to a short view of the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

on the lands should be recalled. The consuls and all the surviving officers took the oaths; and 600 Roman knights were left as hostages to ensure the ratification of the treaty by the Roman people. The Romans were stripped of their arms, and made to pass between two spears set upright, and a third fastened across them at the top, as a token that they had been conquered in war, and owed their lives to the mercy of the victors, according to the custom which then prevailed, 322 B. C. The senate and people refused to ratify the treaty. The consuls and all the officers that had sworn to the treaty were sent back to Samnium; but Pontius refused to accept them, and sent them back unhurt, they not being the guilty persons. Nearly thirty years after, in 291, when Pontius was made prisoner by Q. Fabius Gurgus, he was led in triumph through Rome, and afterwards beheaded, which proves that, in their dealings with foreigners, the Romans had neither magnanimity, nor humanity, nor justice.

SECTION XLI.

THE HISTORY OF CARTHAGE.

1. [FROM the most remote antiquity, the northern coast of Africa was covered with Phœnician colonies, established for the purposes of trade. At their first establishment, these settlements were mere staples for the reception of merchandise. Carthage, according to the most probable accounts, was founded by a colony of Tyrians, about 880 B.C.; who had fled with Dido, the sister of king Pygmalion, to escape from his tyranny. They are said to have bought the land on which the city was built; and paid a yearly tribute to the native Africans, as an acknowledgment that the country was not their own. But in process of time they became what the Europeans are in India and America, no longer dependent settlers, but sovereigns. The colony had the same language, the same or nearly similar laws and constitution, the same national character, with Tyre, the parent state.

2. Carthage was built on a peninsula in the interior of a large bay, now called the bay of Tunis, formed by the projection of the Hermian promontory (now Cape Bon) on the east, and the promontory of Apollo (now Cape Zebid) on the west. The African territory of Carthage extended westward along the coast of the Mediterranean to the Pillars of Hercules (the Straits of Gibraltar), and eastward to the Gulf of Sidra or Syrtis, a country reaching from 19 degrees east longitude to 6 degrees west. This long line of coast was for the most part only so far under the dominion of the Carthaginians, that they possessed a chain of commercial establishments along its whole extent, and with the usual ascendancy of civilized men over barbarians. But in that part where the coast runs nearly north and south, from the Hermæan headland (Cape Bon), to the Lesser Syrtis (Gulf of Cades), they had occupied the country more completely. The soil being there extremely rich, numerous towns were built, and the open country covered with farms and villas.

The foreign possessions of Carthage included the Balearic Islands, Corsica, Sardinia, and the smaller islands in the Mediterranean; the southern part of Sicily and Spain (where they built Carthagera and Gades); some settlements on the western coast of Africa; and probably the Canary Islands and Madeira, in the Atlantic. The Carthaginians also traded with Britain for tin.]

3. The constitution of Carthage is celebrated by Aristotle as one of the most perfect of the governments of antiquity; but we know little more of its general nature from ancient writers [than that it was an aristocratic republic, with a certain admixture of democracy]. Two magistrates, named Suffetes, or kings, chosen from the most distinguished families (probably for life), seem to

have possessed powers akin to those of the Roman consuls; as did the Carthaginian senate, which was elected by the people at large, to that of the senate of Rome; with this remarkable difference, that, in the former, unanimity of opinion was requisite in all measures of importance. A divided senate transmitted the business to the assembly of the people. A tribunal of 100 judges took cognizance of military operations, and of the conduct of their generals. A superior council of five seems to have controlled the decisions of the larger tribunal. Two peculiarities of the Carthaginian policy have been censured by Aristotle. One was, that the same person might hold several employments or offices in the state; the other, that the poor were debarred from all offices of trust or importance. But the former of these is frequently both expedient and necessary, and the latter seems agreeable to the soundest policy; for in offices of trust poverty offers too powerful an incitement to deviation from duty.

4. ["Our information respecting the financial system of the Carthaginians is extremely meagre. The following seems to have been the principal sources of the public revenue:—1. The tribute drawn from the federative cities and their African subjects; the former paid in money, the latter for the most part in kind. This tribute was imposed at the will of the government, so that in pressing cases the taxed nations were obliged to give one-half of their income. 2. The case was the same with their external provinces, particularly with Sardinia. 3. The tribute furnished by the nomad hordes, partly by those in the Regio-Syrtyca, and occasionally also by those on the western side. 4. The customs, which were levied with extreme rigour, not only in Carthage, but likewise in all the colonies. 5. The produce of their rich mines, particularly those of Spain. In considering the financial system of the Carthaginians, it should not be forgotten that many of the nations with whom they traded, or who served in their armies, were unacquainted with the use of money."—*Heeren*.

5. The first settlements made by the Carthaginians, were entirely in the way of commerce. But by the fourth century from the foundation of their commonwealth, they appeared as extensive conquerors. They were predominant in Africa, and had established their authority in Sardinia and a part of Sicily, when Cyrus, Cambyses, and Darius, were laying the foundation of the Persian monarchy, 559—485 B. C. The Carthaginians had treaties with the Etruscans; and in the first consulate, a commercial treaty was concluded with Rome (509 B. C.). Darius courted their alliance when he meditated the conquest of Greece; and Xerxes renewed that treaty when he followed out the designs of his father. The Carthaginians agreed to attack the Greek colonies in Sicily and southern Italy, to prevent their assisting the parent states during the invasion of Xerxes. They sent a numerous expedition to Sicily, which landed at *Palermo*, when the army and fleet were almost totally

destroyed by Gelon, king of Syracuse, on the same day that the battle of Thermopylæ was fought, and the Persian fleet defeated at Artemesium—three of the noblest triumphs obtained in the struggle for Grecian freedom, 480 B.C. For seventy years after this defeat, little is known of the history of Carthage, except that during that period the state greatly extended its power over the native tribes of Africa, and gained important acquisitions of territory from the Cyrenians.

6. The conquest of the whole of Sicily was a favourite object of Carthaginian policy. The pretext of assisting the Segestans against the Syracusans led to a renewed effort for that purpose, about 410 B.C., when the Carthaginians took Selinus, Himera, and Agrigentum, which led to a war with Dionysius I., tyrant of Syracuse, who became the head of a confederacy of the Sicilian states to expel the invaders. The contest lasted without intermission, and with varied success, until 368, when peace was concluded, on the terms that each party should remain in possession of what they then occupied. During the civil disturbances subsequent to the death of Dionysius, the Carthaginians again endeavoured to obtain their end, but were thwarted by Timoleon, one of the greatest generals of antiquity, who was sent from Corinth to the assistance of the Syracusans. He defeated the Carthaginians in several battles; and obliged them to sue for and accept peace on his own terms, 339. The Syracusan war recommenced in 317 with success, when Agathocles unexpectedly transported his army into Africa, and compelled the Carthaginians, by the dread of a nearer danger, to abandon Sicily, 310. The war was terminated in favour of Carthage; and Agathocles died soon after, either from grief or poison, 307. The Carthaginians then renewed their intrigues in Sicily, and acquired a predominant influence in the island. The Greek colonies, to prevent their utter ruin, solicited the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who had married a daughter of Agathocles, and was then in Italy endeavouring to protect the colonies of Magna-Græcia from the increasing power of the Romans, 278 B.C. Pyrrhus landed in Sicily, and made himself master of all the Carthaginian towns except Lilybæum; but in consequence of the quarrels of the petty Sicilian chiefs, he returned to Italy, when the fruits of his victories were lost as rapidly as they had been acquired, notwithstanding the heroic exertions of Hiero, king of Syracuse.

7. The war with Pyrrhus gave rise to an alliance between Carthage and Rome, which contributed to increase the preponderance of the Carthaginians in Sicily. But this friendship did not continue long. The Romans were induced to give their aid to a band of Italian mercenaries, called Mamertines, who had been in the service of Agathocles, and attempted to render *themselves* independent in Sicily. This led to the first Punic war, which lasted without intermission for nearly twenty-three

years, 264—241 B. C. (see Sect. 43). That famous war cost the Carthaginian state Sicily and the sovereignty of the Mediterranean, besides the total exhaustion of its finances. The immediate consequences were more terrific even than the war itself. The impossibility of paying the mercenary troops produced a mutiny among them, which extending, grew into a rebellion of the subject nations, who had been most cruelly oppressed during the war. Civil war broke out at Carthage, which lasted for three years and a-half. Sardinia revolted, and was taken possession of by the Romans, contrary to the terms of peace, 237.

8. The Carthaginian state was saved from ruin by the heroism of Hamilcar Barcas, who was forced to seek support against the senate by becoming the leader of the democratic faction. The first-fruit of this connection was the new and gigantic project of repairing the loss of Sicily and Sardinia by the conquest of Spain, a country where the Carthaginians already had some possessions and commercial relations. In the nine years during which Hamilcar commanded, and in the following eight, in which Hasdrubal, his son-in-law and successor, was at the head of the army, the whole of the south of Spain, as far as the Iberus, was brought under the dominion of Carthage, either by negotiation or force of arms. Their further progress was only arrested by a treaty with the Romans, in which the Iberus was fixed upon as the frontier line, and the freedom of Saguntum acknowledged by both powers. Hasdrubal founded Carthagera (New Carthage) as the future capital of the newly conquered country; and on his death, by the hand of an assassin, in 221, he was succeeded in the command of the army by his nephew, Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, then only twenty-one, who afterwards became so famous. Hannibal found everything already prepared in Spain for a renewal of the contest with Rome, which the policy of his family considered a necessity to be provided for. The youthful general commenced the war against the Romans by the capture of Saguntum in 219, and invaded Italy in the autumn of 218, where he maintained himself until recalled in 203 for the defence of Carthage. The loss of the battle of Zama (202) led to the second peace with Rome, by which Carthage was deprived of all her possessions out of Africa, and her fleet was delivered into the hands of the Romans; thus terminating the second Punic war, 201 B. C.

9. Hannibal remained at the head of affairs, and by his energy succeeded in reforming the administration of the government, more particularly in the finances, which were embezzled by an oligarchy who had the management of the revenue for life. These he superseded by officers annually appointed. The finances were brought into order, which enabled the state, before ten years had elapsed, to pay the whole of the tribute, which had been engaged to be paid by instalments to the Romans. The aristocratic faction opposed to Hannibal, represented to the Romans that he was preparing to renew the war against them, which led

them to send an embassy to demand that he should be delivered up to them. Hannibal secretly fled to Antiochus the Great, at whose court he became the chief fomentor of the war against Rome, 195 B. C.

10. From this time, the power of Carthage began rapidly to decline. The influence of Rome was completely established at Carthage; and by their intrigues with Masinissa, who had been elevated to the dignity of king of Numidia, disputes were kept up which led to the gradual dismemberment of the Carthaginian territory. And when the time arrived for the interference of the Romans, the senate, urged by the elder Cato, came to the resolution of totally destroying Carthage. The Carthaginians, to remove the pretext for war, resolved to obey every command. They gave three hundred of their noblest youths as hostages; they surrendered their ships of war and their magazines of arms: but after all these concessions, they were ordered to abandon their city, when they took courage from despair, and refused to obey. War was immediately declared against them, which continued for about four years, when Carthage was taken by storm, in 146 B. C., by P. Scipio Æmilianus, who levelled it with the ground.]

SECTION XLII.

THE HISTORY OF SICILY.

1. THE early periods of the history of Sicily are no less unknown than those of Carthage. The Phœnicians had sent colonies thither before the Trojan war. The Greeks, in after times, made considerable settlements in the island. The Corinthians founded Syracuse about 734 B. C., which became the most illustrious of the Greek cities of Sicily; and from Syracuse arose afterwards Agrigentum, Acra, Casmene, Camarene, and several other flourishing towns.

2. The government of Syracuse was monarchical, and might long have remained so, had all its sovereigns inherited the abilities and virtues of Gelon, its first monarch (485—478). But his successors, exercising the worst of tyranny, compelled their subjects at length to abolish the regal government (466); and their example was speedily followed by all the Grecian states of Sicily.

3. The monarchy of Syracuse, however, was revived about sixty years after, in the person of Dionysius, a man of obscure origin, but of signal ability. Twice expelled for a tyrannical exercise of dominion, he as often found means to overpower his enemies, and re-establish himself in the throne. At his death, the crown passed, without opposition, to his son, Dionysius the *Younger*, a weak and capricious tyrant, whom his subjects,

judging unworthy to reign, dethroned and banished, 357 B. C. The crown was conferred on Dion, his brother-in-law: but this prince, whose amiable character rendered him the delight of his people, after a short reign, fell a victim to treason. Aided by the distractions of Syracuse consequent on this event, Dionysius remounted the throne, ten years after his expulsion; but his tyrannical disposition, heightened by his misfortunes, became at length so intolerable, that he was expelled a second time, and banished to Corinth, where he ended his days in poverty and obscurity. The author of this revolution was the illustrious Timoleon, to whose abilities and virtues his country owed equally its liberty and its subsequent happiness and prosperity, 343 B. C. [The Syracusans had not virtue enough to retain their recovered freedom. Agathocles, a man of splendid talents, seized the supreme power. Besieged by the Carthaginians in Syracuse, he adopted the bold resolution of carrying the war into Africa; and appearing before the walls of Carthage, defeated their army, and nearly subverted their empire. But suffering a severe reverse of fortune, he meanly abandoned his army to the mercy of the enemy, and returned to Sicily, where he was shortly after poisoned by Mænon, who seized the government, 289.

4. On the death of Agathocles, Syracuse fell into confusion; and the Carthaginians, intent on the acquisition of Sicily, now invaded the city with a large fleet and an army of 50,000 men. The Syracusans, unable to resist this force, invited to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who, as we have before seen, withdrew his troops from Italy for this purpose. Pyrrhus was for some time successful; but he was at length overcome by the Carthaginians, and forced to evacuate Sicily. This war involved Carthage in hostilities with Rome, which immediately led to the first Punic war, and ultimately caused her ruin.]

The signal opposition of national character between the Romans and Carthaginians may be easily accounted for, when we attend to the effects of a commercial life on the genius and manners of a nation. The vices of a commercial people are considered to be selfishness, cunning, avarice, with an absence of every heroic and patriotic virtue. The favourable effects of commerce are, industry, frugality, respect to mutual contracts and obligations, general courtesy of manners, the cultivation of science, and its application to improvement in the useful arts. Attending to these consequences of the prevalence of the commercial spirit, we shall see the principal features of the Carthaginian character opposed to the Roman.

SECTION XLIII.

THE PUNIC WARS, 264—146 B.C.

1. THE triumph which the Romans had obtained over Pyrrhus seemed to give assurance of success in any enterprise in which they should engage. The Mamertines, a people of Campania, who had been in the pay of Agathocles, and who were desirous of settling in Sicily, obtained aid from the Romans in an unjustifiable attempt which they made to seize Messina, a Sicilian town allied to Syracuse. The Syracusans, at first assisted by the Carthaginians, opposed this invasion; but their united forces were defeated by the Romans. The Syracusans having never felt the power of the Roman arms, and being more alarmed by the ambitious encroachments of the Carthaginians on Sicily, soon repented of this rash alliance, and joined the Romans in the purpose of expelling the Carthaginians entirely from the island, 263. In fact, the Sicilians seemed to have had only the desperate choice of final submission either to Rome or Carthage. They chose the former, as the alternative least dishonourable: the Romans had ever been their friends; the Carthaginians their enemies.

2. Agrigentum, possessed by the Carthaginians, was taken after a long siege, by the joint forces of Rome and Syracuse. [The Romans, encouraged by this success, and conscious of the great advantage which the enemy derived from their superiority at sea, determined to have a fleet. A Carthaginian ship of war, that was stranded on the coast of Italy, is said to have served as a model; and by a wonderful effort of industry, the Romans equipped in a few weeks, 120 similar vessels—the first fleet they ever had, 260 B.C. Inferior to their enemy in the art of manœuvring their vessels, they invented machines for boarding,* and bringing a sea-fight to resemble a land-fight. By this means, the consul Duilius gained a complete victory off Mylæ, over the fleet of the Carthaginians.] Carthage at this time was the greatest maritime power in the world. These successes were followed by the reduction of Corsica and Sardinia. In a second naval engagement off the Liparæan Islands, in 257, the Romans took from the Carthaginians sixty of their ships of war, and now resolutely prepared for the invasion of Africa. The consul Regulus commanded the expedition. He advanced to the gates of Carthage; and such was the general consternation, that the enemy proposed a capitulation. Inspired, however, by a timely aid of Greek troops under Xantippus, the Carthaginians made a desperate effort, and totally defeating the Roman army, made Regulus

* Each ship had what may be called a long drawbridge, thirty-six feet long by four wide, with a low parapet on each side of it. This bridge was attached by a rope to a mast at the ship's prow, and so formed that it could be moved freely round, and let fall on the enemy's ships in any direction. The soldiers then rushed on board, and came to close quarters with their opponents.

their prisoner. But repeatedly defeated in Sicily, they were at length seriously desirous of a peace; and the Roman general was sent with their ambassadors to Rome to aid the negotiation, under a solemn oath to return to Carthage as a prisoner, should the treaty fail. It was rejected, at the urgent desire of Regulus himself, who returned to Carthage, and soon after died,* 250 B. C.

3. The war still continued, and Lilybæum, the strongest of the Sicilian towns belonging to Carthage, was taken after a siege of nine years. After some alternate successes, two naval battles won by the Romans terminated the war; and Carthage at last obtained a peace, on the humiliating terms of abandoning to the Romans all her possessions in Sicily, the payment of 3,200 talents of silver, the restitution of all prisoners without ransom, and a solemn engagement never to make war against Syracuse or her allies. The island of Sicily was now declared a Roman province, with the exception of Syracuse, which still maintained her independent government (year of Rome 513, and B. C. 241). Thus terminated the first Punic war,† after a contest of nearly twenty-three years. The temple of Janus was then shut, an event which had not happened since the reign of Numa, a period of nearly 500 years. In a few years it was again opened, and never shut till the reign of Augustus.

4. The peace between Rome and Carthage was of twenty-three years' duration. The latter power was recruiting her strength, and meditated to revenge her losses and disgrace. The second Punic war began on the part of the Carthaginians, who besieged Saguntum, a city of Spain in alliance with the Romans. The young Hannibal took Saguntum, after a siege of seven months; the desperate inhabitants setting fire to the town, and perishing amidst the flames (B. C. 219). Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy. He provided against every difficulty; gained to his interest a part of the Gallic tribes; passed the Pyrenees, and finally the Alps, in a toilsome march of five months and a-half from his leaving Carthage; and arrived in Italy with 20,000 foot and 6,000 horse. This expedition is deservedly reckoned one of the most remarkable exploits of antiquity.

5. In the first engagement, the Romans were defeated; and they lost two other important battles at Trebia and the lake Trasymenus. In the latter of these, the consul Flaminius was killed, and his army cut to pieces. Hannibal advanced to Cannæ, in Apulia; and the Romans there opposing him with their whole

* The story runs, that the Carthaginians put him to a lingering death; but there is no more reason to believe that it was so, than that the wife and sons of Regulus, according to a similar story, made it their pretext for wreaking their cruelty upon two noble Carthaginian prisoners, who were placed in their hands as hostages. When the Carthaginians sued for peace, Regulus proposed the most intolerable terms, which were rejected; and being afterwards defeated, his army destroyed, except about 500 men, it is more probable that he died of mortification, shame, and a pining after his country.

† So called from Punic, the name of the ancient language of the Carthaginians.

force, a memorable defeat ensued, in which 40,000 were left dead upon the field, and amongst these the consul Æmilius, and almost the whole body of the Roman knights, 215 B.C. Had Hannibal taken advantage of this great victory, by instantly attacking Rome, the fate of the republic was inevitable; but he deliberated, and the occasion was lost. The Romans concentrated all their strength; even the slaves armed in the common cause; and victory once more attended the standards of the republic. Philip II., king of Macedon, joined his forces to the Carthaginians, but, defeated by Lævinus, speedily withdrew his assistance. Hannibal retreated before the brave Marcellus. Syracuse had now taken part with Carthage, and thus paved the way for the loss of her own liberty. Marcellus besieged the city, which was long defended by the inventive genius of Archimedes, the greatest mechanic of antiquity, but taken in the third year by escalade in the night. This event put an end to the kingdom of Syracuse, which now became a part of the Roman province of Sicily (year of Rome 542, B.C. 212).

6. While the war in Italy was prosperously conducted by the great Fabius, who, by constantly avoiding a general engagement, found the true method of weakening his enemy, the younger Scipio accomplished the entire reduction of Spain. Asdrubal was sent into Italy to the aid of his brother Hannibal, but was defeated by the consul Claudius Nero, and slain in battle. This fatal defeat destroyed the prospects of Hannibal, and encouraged the efforts of the Romans. Scipio, triumphant in Spain, now passed over into Africa, and carried havoc and devastation to the gates of Carthage. Alarmed for the fate of their empire, the Carthaginians hastily recalled Hannibal from Italy, after having retained possession of the fairest portions of it for seventeen years. The battle of Zama decided the fate of the war. Hannibal was defeated for the first time, and with difficulty escaped from the field; and arriving at Carthage, brought the account of the total destruction of his army. The Carthaginians entreated a peace, which the Romans granted on these conditions: that the Carthaginians should abandon Spain, Sicily, and all the islands lying between Italy and Africa; surrender all their prisoners, Roman deserters, fugitive slaves, and to give up the whole of their fleet except ten galleys; pay within the period of fifty years 10,000 talents; to undertake in future no war without the consent of the Romans; and to assist them both by sea and land, whenever they were called upon to do so. Thus ended the second Punic war, which had continued for twenty years (year of Rome 552, B.C. 202). The Carthaginian power was now completely broken; and the treaty, by interdicting them from repelling force by force without the consent of the Romans, left them at the mercy of their neighbours, particularly Masinissa, the ally of the Romans.

7. Everything now concurred to swell the pride of the conquerors, and to extend their dominion. Their arms for the

first time showed themselves in Greece. A war with Philip II. of Macedon was undertaken, and terminated by his defeat; and his son Demetrius was sent to Rome as a hostage for the payment of a heavy tribute imposed on the vanquished, (196 B.C.) This was soon followed by a war with Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, who had offended them by opposing their arms in Greece and affording an asylum to Hannibal, who had been forced by a faction at Carthage to seek refuge at his court (195). Antiochus was defeated at Thermopylæ, and pursued into Syria; he was again defeated at Magnesia, and obliged to sue for peace. The war was terminated by his ceding to the Romans the whole of the Lesser Asia as far as Mount Taurus, the half of his ships, and agreeing to pay 15,000 talents towards the expenses of the war. Antiochus was further required to deliver up Hannibal,* and others of his ablest generals, but they prudently made their escape at the commencement of the negotiations, (191 B.C.)

8. Philip was succeeded by Perseus, who, among the first of his acts, formed an alliance with several of the Grecian states to make war against the Romans. This war terminated in the total defeat of Perseus at Pydna in 168, in his being carried captive to Rome to adorn the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, and in the reduction of Macedon into a Roman province, (167 B.C.) But these splendid conquests, while they enlarged the empire, were fatal to its virtues, and subversive of the pure and venerable simplicity of ancient times.

9. The third Punic war began in the 605th year of Rome, 149 B.C., and ended in the ruin of Carthage. An unsuccessful war with Masinissa, king of Numidia, had reduced the Carthaginians to great weakness, and the Romans meanly laid hold of that opportunity to invade Africa, and to destroy their once formidable rival. Conscious of their utter inability to resist this formidable power, the Carthaginians offered every submission, and consented even to acknowledge themselves the subjects of Rome. The senate promised them every degree of favour, on condition that they should perform what was required of them, and demanded 300 hostages of high rank for the strict performance of the stipulation 5. The hostages were given; a Roman army was landed in Africa, and the first condition required was, that they should deliver up all their arms and military stores—which having been submitted to with reluctance, the Roman consuls next demanded that the population should abandon the city, and that Carthage itself should be razed to its foundation. Despair gave courage to this miserable people, and they determined to die in the defence of their native city. But the noble effort was in vain.

* Hannibal afterwards resided for several years in Bithynia, and assisted Prusias in his war against Eumenes, king of Pergamus, the ally of the Romans. There too the vengeance of his enemies reached him. Roman ambassadors were sent to demand that he should be given up, and as Prusias was ungenerous enough to accede to the demand, Hannibal *poisoned himself*. This great man died about 182 B.C.

Carthage was taken by storm by Scipio Æmilianus, its inhabitants massacred, and the city burned to the ground, the conflagration lasting for seventeen days, (147 B.C.) Carthage was one of the most splendid cities in the universe, and contained at the time of its destruction about 700,000 inhabitants. The treasure Æmilianus carried away, even after the city had been given up to be plundered by the soldiers, was immense, amounting, according to Pliny, to 4,470,000 pounds weight of silver. The Romans intended that a city should never be built on its site, but it again rose to importance, and was looked upon as the capital of Africa for several centuries after the Christian era, although dependant on Rome or Constantinople.

10. The same year was signalized by the destruction of Corinth, and the entire reduction of Greece into a Roman province, under the name of Achaia. This was the era of the dawn of luxury and taste at Rome, the natural fruit of foreign wealth, and an acquaintance with foreign manners. In the unequal distribution of this imported wealth, the vices to which it gave rise, the corruption and venality of which it became the instrument, we see the remoter causes of those fatal disorders to which the republic owed its dissolution.

SECTION XLIV.

THE GRACCHI AND THE CORRUPTION OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. THE Romans had now completed the destruction of the Carthaginian empire, and added to their dominions—Spain, Sicily, Macedonia, Greece, and a large portion of Asia; together with the Lesser Asia, which was left to them by the last will of Attalus, king of Pergamus. These extensive conquests were, in a moral point of view, much more prejudicial than advantageous: their simple manners became relaxed, and Asiatic wealth and luxury proved destructive to Roman virtue. We are no more to look for the noble qualities that adorned the golden ages of the republic, but to trace the progress of corruption and of violence.

2. At this period arose Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, two noble youths, whose zeal to reform the growing corruptions of the state [led to a violent struggle with the aristocracy. Tiberius, the elder of the brothers, when tribune, urged the people to insist on the carrying into effect of an ancient statute, the Licinian law, which limited the occupation of the public land by one individual to five hundred jugera (about 330 acres); his object being to obtain a more equal occupation, and that a greater number of the people might participate in the advantage. As this could only be done by dispossessing the patricians of extensive tracts of the public land which they had occupied, without, in most cases, *paying any rent to the state*, a tumult was raised by the aristo-

cratic party, headed by Scipio Nasica, in which Tiberius and 300 of his friends were killed in the forum, 133 B. C. The enforcement of the law was however proceeded with for some time, by commissioners appointed for that purpose. Caius Gracchus, undaunted by the fate of his brother, and encouraged by his mother, Cornelia, a daughter of the celebrated Scipio Africanus, determined to oppose the rapacity and injustice of the aristocracy. He was elected tribune in 122, and immediately began to re-enforce the Agrarian law. And in his second tribuneship, he procured the enactment of a law which transferred from the senate to the equestrian order (the knights) the power of judging in all cases of magisterial corruption or misconduct—a change rendered necessary by the impunity that had been long given to the grossest delinquency and extortion. This limitation of the power of the senate, and subjection of the magistracy to be tried by a popular body, determined the more violent of the aristocracy again to resort to violence. They successfully opposed the election of Caius, when he offered himself the third time for the tribuneship; and this was followed by the election of Opimius, the most violent of their party, to the consulship. Opimius was then invested with dictatorial power, that he might be authorized to act in a summary manner against Caius Gracchus, whose person had ceased to be inviolable. Caius, aware of his intention, withdrew to the Aventine quarter of the city, where he was attacked by Opimius, and slain, with 3000 of his friends and followers, in 121. This success of the aristocracy imboldened them to repeal the law which prohibited the transfer of lands already divided, and to stop all further divisions. From this time, the power of the state was exercised by a corrupt, avaricious, and insolent faction of the patricians, which led to those civil disorders which now follow in quick succession to the end of the commonwealth.*]

* The Gracchi have been represented as demagogues, who sought popularity and political power by encouraging the people to demand as a right the equal division of lands which were the property of others. This is incorrect. After the conquest of Italy, there were three sorts of land. 1. Land held by the old inhabitants, which had never been forfeited, or restored to them by the Roman government. 2. Land held by a Roman colony by grant from the Roman people. 3. Land still held by the Roman people as domain, the extent of which was enormous throughout Italy. The occupiers of public land never acquired the ownership by virtue of possession; it was not subject to usucaption. Ownership could only be acquired by direct gift or purchase from the state. Hence the state could, at any time, according to strict legal right, sell or assign to another that land which was only occupied, just as landholders at the present time sell estates that are occupied by tenants-at-will or on lease. It was only with the public lands that the Gracchi proposed to deal, and they even provided to pay the occupiers who were required to remove for the buildings erected and improvements made by them, which is seldom done to out-going tenants in this country. It is necessary to state that every Roman citizen was a joint proprietor of the domains of the republic, and that each head of a family had a right to occupy not exceeding 500 jugera, or about 330 acres of the state land, on paying the ordinary rent—one-fifth of the produce of arable land, and two-fifths of olive-grounds and vineyards. At this time there was a numerous body of citizens who had been obliged to sell their private lands, and who had never had any. These had been drawn to Rome from all parts of Italy, as well as those discharged from the army. The patricians had always opposed the allotment of lands to individuals. And particularly on the present occasion, as it appears that the greater part of the domain lands of the state had got into their hands, which they cultivated by the slaves that

3. The circumstances attending the war with Jugurtha gave decisive proof of the corruption of the Roman senate. Micipsa, son of Masinissa, king of Numidia, when dying, left his kingdom to his sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, and to his nephew Jugurtha. The latter sought to usurp the crown by destroying his cousins. He murdered the elder of the brothers; and the younger applying for aid to Rome, Jugurtha was summoned to appear before the senate, whom he succeeded in bribing to a great extent, and they declared him innocent of all culpable act or design, and decreed to him the sovereignty of half the kingdom. This operated only as an incentive to his criminal ambition. He declared open war against his cousin Adherbal, besieged him in his capital of Cirta, and finally put him to death. To avert a threatened war, Jugurtha went in person to Rome, pleaded his own cause in the senate, and, once more by bribery, secured his acquittal from all charge of criminality. A perseverance, however, in a similar train of conduct finally drew on him the vengeance of the Romans; and being betrayed into their hands by his own father-in-law, Bocchus, king of Mauritania, he was brought in chains to Rome to grace the triumph of the consul Marius, confined to a dungeon, and starved to death, 103 B. C.

4. The ambition of the dependent states of Italy to attain the rights of citizenship produced the Social war, which [after a contest of three years, in which half a million of men are supposed to have perished, the war was] ended in a concession of those rights to such of the confederates as should return peaceably to their allegiance. This war with the Italian states was a prelude to that which followed between Rome and her own citizens. Sylla and Marius, rivals, and thence enemies, were at this time the leaders of the republic [the one of the aristocratic faction, and the other of the democracy]. Sylla, commanding in a war against Mithridates, was superseded, and recalled from Asia. He refused to obey the mandate; and found his army well disposed to support him. "Let us march to Rome," said they, with one voice; "lead us on to avenge the cause of oppressed liberty." Sylla accordingly led them on, and they entered Rome sword in hand. Marius and his partisans fled with precipitation from the city, and Sylla ruled for a while triumphant. But the faction of his rival soon recovered strength. Marius returning to Italy, and joining his forces to those of Cinna, his zealous partisan, laid siege to Rome; and, while Sylla was

had been brought to Italy in great numbers during the late wars. By this means, and by withholding the ordinary state rent, the patricians had become very rich; whilst the free population were driven from the country into the towns, to seek a precarious subsistence. The Gracchi proposed to allot the domain lands to Roman citizens, as well as the free population in the different states of Italy, and gradually to break up the dangerous system of occupation which had been introduced. But as these measures were opposed by the aristocracy, who had become all-powerful in the state, there was left a numerous free population scattered over Italy, which had no regular employment. These formed the armies that afterwards deluged the state with blood, and that aided in establishing a military despotism.

engaged in the Mithridatic war, compelled the city to absolute submission. After a horrible massacre of all whom they esteemed their enemies, Marius and Cinna proclaimed themselves consuls, without the formality of an election; but Marius, in the seventieth year of his age, died a few days after, in a fit of debauch, 86 B. C.

5. After having victoriously terminated the Mithridatic war, Sylla returned to Italy in triumph, and found the consuls Carbo and Norbanus, with above 200,000 men, in arms to oppose him. Sylla had the address to gain over a whole consular army, with Cethegus, Verres, and the young Pompey. He then gave battle to the party of his enemies, and entirely defeated them. His entry into Rome was signalized by a dreadful massacre, and a proscription, which had for its object the extermination of every enemy whom he had in Italy. 150,000 Roman citizens are said to have been put to death, and their property confiscated. Elected dictator for an unlimited period, he was now without a rival in authority, and absolute master of the government, which, of course, was substantially no longer a republic. In the exercise of his dominion, he deserved more praise than in the means of acquiring it. He restored the senate to its judicial authority, regulated the election to all the important offices of state, and enacted many excellent laws against oppression, and the abuse of power. Finally, he gave demonstration, if not of a pure conscience, at least of a magnanimous intrepidity of character, by voluntarily resigning all command, retiring to the condition of a private citizen, and offering publicly to give an account of his conduct. He died within a short time after his resignation, in 78 B. C.:—a man certainly of great strength of mind, and who had some of the qualities of an heroic character; but he lived in evil times, when it was impossible at once to be great and to be virtuous.

6. The death of Sylla renewed the civil war. Lepidus, a man of mean abilities, aspired to succeed him in power; and Pompey, with superior talents, cherished the same ambition. [While the latter was employed in the final reduction of Mithridates and the revolted provinces of Asia, Italy was thrown into confusion by the insurrection of the slaves, headed by the gladiator Spartacus, who resolved to attempt the liberation of his class rather than to expose his life in the arena for the amusement of their oppressors. Spartacus was joined by 70,000 slaves, and defeated four generals, one after the other. He was defeated and slain near the Silaurus in 71, when the revolt was suppressed, and great numbers of his followers were crucified by the cruel conquerors. The conspiracy of Catiline next threatened the entire destruction of Rome. It was extinguished by the provident zeal and active patriotism of the consul Cicero; and Catiline himself, with his chief accomplices, were attacked in the field, and defeated by Patrius, the lieutenant of the consul C. Antonius, 62.] The traitor made a

desperate defence, and died a better death than his crimes had merited.

7. Julius Cæsar now rose into public notice (born in 100 B. C.) Sylla, who was an excellent judge of human nature, dreaded his abilities and ambition, and had numbered him among the proscribed. "There is many a Marius," said he, "in the person of that young man." He had learned prudence from the danger of his situation, and tacitly courted popularity, without that show of enterprise which gives alarm to a rival. While Pompey and Crassus contended for the command of the republic, Cæsar, who knew that by attaching himself to either rival, he infallibly made the other his enemy, showed the reach of his talents by reconciling them, and thus acquiring the friendship of both. From favour to their mutual friend, they agreed to a partition of power; and thus was formed the first Triumvirate, 60 B. C. Cæsar was elected consul, 59. He increased his popularity by obtaining the enactment of a new agrarian law; which made a division of lands among the poorer citizens, and he strengthened his interest with Pompey, by giving him his daughter in marriage. He had the command of four legions, and the government of Transalpine Gaul and Illyria for five years, which gave him an opportunity of forming an army devoted to his will.

8. The military glory of the republic, and the reputation of Cæsar, were nobly sustained in Gaul. In the first year of his government he subdued the Helvetii, who, leaving their own country, had attempted to settle themselves in the better regions of the Roman province. He totally defeated the Germans under Ariovistus, who had attempted a similar invasion. The Belgæ, the Nervii, the Celtic Gauls, the Suevi, Menapii, and other warlike nations, were all successively brought under subjection. In the fourth year of his government, he transported his army into Britain, 55. Landing at Deal, he was opposed by the natives with equal courage and military skill. He gained, however, several advantages, and binding the Britons to submission, withdrew, on the approach of winter, into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a greater force, and prosecuting his victories, reduced a considerable portion of the island under the Roman dominion. But the pressure of affairs in Italy suspended for a time the progress of the Roman arms in Britain.

9. Cæsar dreaded the abilities of Cicero, who had opposed him in his views of ambition. By the machinations of his partisans, while himself absent in Gaul, he procured the banishment of Cicero, and the confiscation of his estates, on the pretence of illegal measures pursued in the suppression of the conspiracy of Catiline. During an exile of sixteen months in Greece, Cicero gave way to a despondency of mind utterly unworthy of the philosopher. Pompey had abandoned him, and this ungrateful desertion bore most heavily upon his mind: but Pompey himself, in the wane of his reputation, soon became desirous to prop

his own sinking fortunes by the abilities of Cicero, and eagerly promoted his recall from exile. The death of Crassus, in an expedition against the Parthians, in which he was defeated near Carrhæ by Surena, now dissolved the Triumvirate; and Cæsar and Pompey, whose union had no other bond than interest, began each to conceive separately the view of undivided dominion.

SECTION XLV.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

Progress of the Civil Wars.—Second Triumvirate,—and Fall of the Republic.

1. THE ambition of Cæsar and of Pompey had now evidently the same object; and it seemed to be the only question in those degenerate times, to which of these aspiring leaders the republic should surrender its liberties. The second term for five years of Cæsar's government was near expiring; but to secure himself against a deprivation of power, he procured a proposal to be made in the senate by one of his partisans, which wore the appearance of great moderation—namely, that Cæsar and Pompey should either both continue in their governments, or both be deprived of them, as they were equally capable of endangering the public liberty by an abuse of power. The motion passed; and Cæsar immediately offered to resign, on condition that his rival should do so: but Pompey rejected the accommodation; the term of his government had yet several years' duration, and he suspected the proposal to be a snare laid for him by Cæsar. He resolved to maintain his right by force of arms, and a civil war was the necessary consequence. The consuls and a great part of the senate were the friends of Pompey. Cæsar had on his side a victorious army, consisting of ten legions, and the body of the Roman citizens whom he had won by his liberality. Mark Antony and Cassius, at that time tribunes of the people, left Rome, and repaired to Cæsar's camp.

2. The senate, apprehensive of his designs, pronounced a decree, [Jan. 7, 49, by which Cæsar was commanded "to disband his army under the penalty of being declared an enemy to the republic,"] and branding with the crime of parricide any commander who should dare to pass the Rubicon (which formed the boundary between Italy and Cisalpine Gaul,) with a single cohort, without their permission. Cæsar, after much hesitation, and without regard to the intercessions of the tribunes, whose flight to him gave an appearance of popularity to his party, infringed the prohibition, and marched straight to Rome. Pompey, to whom the senate committed the defence of the state, had neglected to assemble an army. He quitted Rome, followed by the consuls and part of the senate, and endeavoured

hastily to levy troops over all Italy and Greece; while Cæsar triumphantly entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority without opposition. Having secured the capital of the empire, he took the field against his enemies, and obliged Pompey and his friends to embark at Brandusium for Greece, which they had chosen for the principal theatre of the war. Afranius and Petreius, the lieutenants of Pompey, had possession of Spain; and lest they might land in Italy in his absence, Cæsar marched thither, and subdued the whole country in the space of forty days. He returned victorious to Rome, where, in his absence, he had been nominated dictator. In the succeeding election of magistrates, he was chosen consul, and thus invested, by a double title, with the right of acting in the name of the republic, December, 49.

3. [Meanwhile Pompey had collected troops from Greece, Macedonia, Epirus, and the Asiatic provinces, which occupied Dyrrachium, Apollonia, and the other towns on the coast. He had likewise assembled a numerous fleet, under the command of Bibulus, to guard the passage from Italy to Greece. Cæsar, on his part, had drawn his troops to the coast near to Brandusium, from whence he passed over with a division of his army to Epirus, early in January, 48, leaving the remainder to follow under the command of Antony. Cæsar hastened to Dyrrachium, where Pompey had formed his principal magazines, from whence he was repulsed, and obliged to fall back until reinforced by Antony, who had been blockaded for some time in Brandusium. Pompey followed Cæsar into Macedonia, and from thence to Thessaly, flattering himself that this was a retreat upon the part of his enemy. He was, therefore, anxious to come up with him, and eager to terminate the war by a general engagement. This was exactly what Cæsar wished. A decisive battle was then fought, July 30, 48 B. C., in the plains of Pharsalia, where Pompey brought into the field 45,000 infantry and 5,000 cavalry, consisting principally of raw and undisciplined troops; while Cæsar had 22,000 infantry, and 1000 cavalry, who were all veteran warriors. Pompey was defeated, and his army entirely destroyed, 15,000 of his soldiers being slain, and 24,000 taken prisoners; and his whole camp became the prey of the conquerors. Cæsar found in the camp of Pompey, all his papers, containing the correspondence carried on with the chief of his partisans at Rome, which he had the magnanimity to commit to the flames without opening them. Pompey fled to Amphipolis, and from thence to Egypt, with his wife Cornelia and his son Sextus, to seek the protection of Ptolemy, whose father had been placed on the throne at his recommendation. Ptolemy was then a minor, and the regent Photimus caused Pompey to be murdered immediately on his landing on the shore at Alexandria, in sight of his wife and son. Many of

their attendants were massacred, but his wife and son escaped. "Such was the miserable end of him who had thrice borne the dignity of consul, thrice been honoured with a triumph, and been, in fact, the lord of the world. In him so great was the reverse of fortune, that he who had but lately found the earth too small for his conquests, could not now command enough to cover his remains."—Vell. Pater. ii. 25. His head was cut off, and his body thrown into the sea; but it is supposed to have been recovered, burned on the shore, and the ashes conveyed to his wife Cornelia. Cæsar pursued Pompey with all possible expedition, and with 3200 infantry, and 800 cavalry, arrived at Alexandria three days after him. When informed of the fate of his rival, Cæsar is said to have been unable to restrain his tears, and to have turned aside with horror when his head was presented to him.] He caused every honour to be paid to his memory, and from that time showed the utmost beneficence to the partisans of his unfortunate rival.

4. Cæsar now, by his own imprudence, incurred dangers far greater than any which he had hitherto escaped. The sovereignty of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. The latter, though married to her brother, and joint heir by their father's will, was ambitious of undivided authority. Cæsar interfered in this controversy, and summoned the king and queen to appear before him to settle their disputes. Cleopatra pleaded her own cause, when she so bewitched him by her fascinations, that on the next day he decided the contest in favour of the beauteous queen. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy was killed, and Egypt subdued by the Roman arms. In this war, the famous library of Alexandria, containing 400,000 volumes, was burned to ashes, (48 B.C.) A revolt of the Asiatic provinces, under Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, was signally chastised, and the report conveyed by Cæsar to the Roman senate in three words, *Veni, vidi, vici*. The conqueror returned to Rome, where he was elected consul and dictator for the third time. Rome needed his presence; for Italy was divided, and the partisans of Pompey were yet extremely formidable. His two sons, with Cato and Scipio, were in arms in Africa, aided by Juba, king of Mauritania. Cæsar followed them thither, and, proceeding with caution till secure of his advantage, defeated them in a decisive engagement at Thapsus, 46. B. C. Scipio perished in his passage to Spain. Cato, shutting himself up in Utica, meditated a brave resistance; but finally, seeing no hope of success, he determined not to survive the liberties of his country, and fell deliberately by his own hand. Mauritania was now added to the number of the Roman provinces, and Cæsar returned to Rome absolute master of the empire. The senate placed no bounds to their adulation. He was decreed a splendid triumph, and on that occasion the people were gratified with the most magnificent games and entertainments.

5. From that moment Cæsar's attention was directed solely to the prosperity and happiness of the Roman people. He remembered no longer that there had been opposite parties; beneficent alike to the friends of Pompey as to his own. He laboured to reform every species of abuse or grievance. He introduced order into every department of the state, defining the separate rights of all its magistrates, and extending his care to the regulation of its most distant provinces. The reformation of the calendar;* the draining the marshes of Italy, the navigation of the Tiber, the embellishment of Rome, the complete survey and delineation of the empire, alternately employed his liberal and capacious mind. Returning from the final overthrow of Pompey's party in Spain, he was hailed the Father of his Country, was created consul for ten years, and perpetual dictator. His person was declared sacred, his title henceforth *Imperator*, and he was invested for life with the command of the armies of the republic, (year of Rome 709, B. C. 45.)

6. The Roman republic had thus finally, by its own acts, resigned its liberties. They were not extinguished, as Montesquieu has well remarked, by the ambition of a Pompey or of a Cæsar. If the sentiments of Cæsar and Pompey had been the same with those of Cato, others would have had the same ambitious thoughts; and since the commonwealth was fated to fall, there never would have been wanting a hand to drag it to destruction.† Yet Cæsar had by force subdued his country; he therefore was an usurper. And had it been possible to restore the liberties of the republic, and with these its happiness, by the suppression of that usurpation, the attempt had merited the

* By the calendar of Cæsar, the duration of a year was fixed at 365 days and 8 hours, consequently two hours and eleven minutes too long. This error was partly corrected thirty-seven years after his death; yet, because there were eleven minutes over, the year was found, about 1582, to have run back ten whole days; for which reason, Pope Gregory XIII. cut off ten days, to bring them to their proper place. This is called the Gregorian or new style, which was adopted in the British dominions in 1752.

† It is important to draw attention to the fact, that at this time the middle class of Roman citizens and freemen had been almost destroyed in the perpetual warfare carried on, they being bound to serve in the armies when called on; and the greater number of those that remained had disposed of their lands whilst employed in active service, or were descended from those that had. A few patrician families possessed or occupied the greater part of Italy, which they cultivated by the captives taken in war, thereby preventing the increase of a free population. Crassus was one of these very rich patricians, who could equip and maintain an army at his own expense: others are also mentioned, as Lepidus. It is therefore not to be wondered, when the middle class was so limited in numbers, and dependent for existence on a few noblemen, and when the whole of the labouring classes were slaves, that a combination of noblemen should be able to destroy the liberties of their country. The middle ages furnish numerous similar instances. The wars of Charlemagne for nearly half a century almost entirely destroyed the Franks or free population of France, which enabled a few noblemen to divide the country among them, and to reduce the royal authority of even his grandson to an empty name. They made their offices and titles, and the lands they had seized, hereditary; they compelled the free yeomanry that

praise at least of good design. Perhaps so thought his murderers; and thus, however weak their policy, however base and treacherous their act, with many they will ever find apologists. They madly dreamed an impossible issue, as the event demonstrated.

7. A conspiracy was formed by sixty of the senators, at the head of whom were the prætors Brutus and Cassius; the former a man beloved of Cæsar, who had saved his life, and heaped upon him numberless benefits. It was rumoured that the dictator wished to add to his numerous titles that of king, and that the Ides (15th) of March was fixed on for investing him with the diadem. On that day, when taking his seat in the senate-house, he was suddenly assailed by the conspirators: he defended himself for some time against their daggers, till, seeing Brutus amongst the number, he faintly exclaimed, "And you too, my son!" and covering his face with his robe, resigned himself to his fate. He fell pierced by twenty-three wounds, at the foot of Pompey's statue, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, (year of Rome 710, B. C. 44.)

8. The Roman people were struck with horror at the deed; they loved Cæsar, master as he was of their lives and liberties. Mark Antony, who was then consul, and Lepidus, general of the horse, ambitious of succeeding to the power of the dictator, resolved to pave the way by avenging his death. The people, to whom Cæsar by his testament had bequeathed a great part of his fortune, were penetrated with gratitude to his memory. A public harangue from Antony over the bleeding body, exposed in the forum, inflamed them with the utmost indignation against his murderers, who must have met with instant destruction, had they not escaped with precipitation from the city. Antony profited by these dispositions; and the avenger of Cæsar, of course the favourite of the people, was in the immediate prospect of attaining a similar height of dominion. In this, however, he found a formidable competitor in Octavius, the grand-nephew and the adopted heir of Cæsar, who at this critical moment returned to Rome from Apollonia on the Ionian Sea, where he had been sent to levy troops and await the arrival of Cæsar, who meditated an expedition against the Parthian empire. Availing himself of these titles, Octavius gained the senate to his interest, and divided with Antony the favour of the people. The rivals soon perceived that it was their wisest plan to unite their interests; and they admitted Lepidus into their association,

remained to surrender their lands to them, and to hold of them in place of the sovereign; and they changed the national assemblies into baronial courts. The struggles in England between the sovereign and the aristocracy, which continued for centuries, was a consequence of the destruction of the middle and lower classes of freemen, after the Norman conquest. *The only security for public liberty in any country, is in the liberal distribution of property among a numerous middle class, and a well-conditioned commonalty.*

whose power, as governor of Gaul, and immense riches, gave him a title to a share of authority. Thus was formed the second Triumvirate (43 B. C.), the effects of whose union were beyond measure dreadful to the republic. The Triumviri divided among themselves the provinces, and cemented their union by a deliberate sacrifice made by each of his best friends to the vengeance of his associates. Antony consigned to death his uncle Lucius Cæsar, Lepidus his brother Paulus, and Octavius his guardian Toranius, and his friend Cicero. In this horrible proscription, 300 senators and 3,000 knights were put to death.

9. Octavius and Antony now marched against the conspirators, who had a formidable army in the field in Thrace, commanded by Brutus and Cassius. An engagement ensued at Philippi in Macedonia, towards the close of the year 42 B. C., which decided the fate of the empire. Antony was victorious, for Octavius had no military talents: he was destitute even of personal bravery; and his conduct after the victory was stained with that cruelty which is ever the attendant of cowardice. Brutus and Cassius escaped the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death. Antony now sought a recompense for his troops, by the plunder of the East. While in Cilicia, he summoned Cleopatra to answer for her conduct in poisoning her infant brother, and in openly favouring the party of Brutus and Cassius. The queen came to Tarsus, and made a complete conquest of the Triumvir. Immersed in luxury, and intoxicated with love, he forgot glory, ambition, fame, and everything for Cleopatra; and Octavius saw this frenzy with delight, as the preparative of his rival's ruin. He had nothing to dread from Lepidus, whose insignificant character first drew on him the contempt of his partisans; and whose folly, in attempting an invasion of the province of his colleague, was punished by his deposition and banishment.

10. Antony had in his madness lavished the provinces of the empire in gifts to his paramour and her children. The Roman people were justly indignant at these enormities; and the divorce of his wife Octavia, the sister of his colleague, was at length the signal of declared hostility between them. An immense armament, chiefly naval, came to decisive conflict near Actium, on the coast of Epirus, in sight of the two armies on the shore. Cleopatra, who attended her lover, deserted him with her galleys in the heat of the engagement; and such was the infatuation of Antony, that he abandoned his fleet, and followed her. After a contest of some hours, they yielded to the squadron of Octavius, (year of Rome 723, B. C. 31.) The victor pursued the fugitives to Egypt; and the base Cleopatra proffered terms to Octavius, including the surrender of her kingdom, and the abandonment of Antony. After an unsuccessful attempt at resistance, he anticipated his fate by falling on his sword. And Cleopatra soon after, either from remorse, or more probably from mortified ambition, as she found it was Octavius's design to lead her in

chains to Rome to grace his triumph, had courage to follow the example of her lover, and put herself to death by the poison of an asp, in the thirty-ninth year of her age. With her ended the empire of the Ptolemies, in the year 30 B. C., after it had continued, reckoning from the death of Alexander the Great, about 296 years. Egypt was then made a Roman province, and Octavius returned to Rome, sole master of the Roman empire.

SECTION XLVI.

CONSIDERATIONS ON SUCH PARTICULARS AS MARK THE GENIUS
AND NATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE ROMANS.

System of Roman Education.

1. A VIRTUOUS but rigid severity of manners was the characteristic of the Romans under their kings, and in the first ages of the republic. The private life of the citizens was frugal, temperate, and laborious, which had its influence on their public character. The *Patria potestas* gave to every head of a family a sovereign authority over all the members that composed it; and this power, felt as a right of nature, was never abused. Plutarch has remarked, as a defect of the Roman laws, that they did not prescribe, as those of Lacedæmon, a system and rules for the education of youth. But the truth is, the manners of the people supplied this want. The utmost attention was bestowed in the early formation of the mind and character. The excellent author of the dialogue *De Oratoribus* (whether Quintilian or Tacitus) presents a valuable picture of the Roman education in the early ages of the commonwealth, contrasted with the less virtuous practice of the more refined. The Roman matrons did not abandon their infants to mercenary nurses. They esteemed those duties sacred, and regarded the careful nurture of their offspring, the rudiments of their education, and the necessary occupations of their household, as the highest points of female merit. Next to the care bestowed in the instilment of virtuous morals, a remarkable degree of attention seems to have been given to the language of children, and to the attainment of a correctness and purity of expression. Cicero informs us that the *Gracchi*, the sons of Cornelia, were educated, *non tam in græmio quam in sermone matris*. That urbanity which characterized the Roman citizens showed itself particularly in their speech and gesture.

2. The attention to the language of the youth had another source. It was by eloquence more than by any other talent, that the young Roman could rise to the highest offices and dignities of the state. The *studia forensia* were, therefore, a

principal object of the Roman education. Plutarch informs us, that among the sports of the children at Rome, one was, the pleading causes before a mock tribunal, and accusing and defending a criminal in the usual forms of judicial procedure.

3. The exercises of the body were likewise particularly attended to; and whatever might harden the temperament and confer strength and agility. These exercises were daily practised by the youth, under the eye of their elders, in the Campus Martius.

4. At seventeen the youth assumed the manly robe, the *toga virilis*. He was consigned to the care of a master of rhetoric, whom he attended constantly to the forum or to the courts of justice; for to be an accomplished gentleman, it was necessary for a Roman to be an accomplished orator. The pains bestowed on the attainment of this character, and the best instructions for its acquisition, we learn from the writings of Cicero, Quintilian, and the younger Pliny.

SECTION XLVII.

OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. BEFORE the intercourse with Greece, which took place after the Punic wars, the Roman people were utterly rude and illiterate. As among all nations, the first appearance of the literary spirit is shown in poetical composition, the Roman warrior had probably, like the Indian or the Celtic, his war songs, which celebrated his triumphs in battle. Religion likewise employs the earliest poetry of most nations; and if a people subsists by agriculture, a plentiful harvest is celebrated in the rustic song of the husbandman. The *Versus Fescennini*, mentioned by Livy, were probably of the nature of poetical dialogue, or alternate verses sung by the labourers, in a strain of coarse merriment and raillery. This shows a dawning of the drama.

2. About the 390th year of Rome (364 B.C.), on occasion of a pestilence, *Ludiones* (drolls or stage-dancers) were brought from Etruria, *qui ad tibicinis modos saltantes, haud indecoros motus more Tusco dabant*. Livy tells us that the Roman youth imitated these performances, and added to them rude and jocular verses, probably the Fescennine dialogues. It was not, however, till 240 B.C., that the regular drama was introduced at Rome from Greece by Livius Andronicus, a Greek slave. The earliest Roman plays were, therefore, we may presume, translations from the Greek.

Post Punica bella quietus quærere cepit,
Quid Sophocles, et Thespis, et Æschylus utile ferrent.

3. Of the early Roman drama, Ennius was a great ornament, and from his time the art made rapid advancement. The

comedies of Plautus, the contemporary of Ennius, with great strength and spirit of dialogue, display a considerable knowledge of human nature, and are read at this day with pleasure.

4. Cæcilius improved so much on the comedy of Plautus, that he is mentioned by Cicero as perhaps the best of the Roman comic writers. Of his compositions we have no remains. His patronage fostered the rising genius of Terence, whose first comedy, the *Andria*, was performed in the 587th year of Rome, 164 B.C. The merit of the comedies of Terence lies in that nature and simplicity which are observable alike in the structure of his fables, in the delineation of his characters, and in the delicacy and purity of the sentiments of his pieces. They are deficient, however, in comic energy; they are not calculated to excite ludicrous emotions. They are chiefly borrowed from the Greek of Menander and Apollodorus.

5. The Roman Comedy was of four different species: the *Comædia Togata* or *Prætexata*, the *Comedia Tabernaria*, the *Atellanæ*, and the *Mimi*. The first admitted serious scenes and personages, and was of the nature of modern sentimental comedy. The second was a representation of ordinary life and manners. The *Atellanæ* were pieces where the dialogue was not committed to writing, but the subject of the scene was prescribed, and the dialogue filled up by the talents of the actors. The *Mimi* were pieces of comedy of the lowest species—farces, or entertainments of buffoonery; though sometimes admitting the serious, and even the pathetic.

6. The Roman tragedy kept pace in its advancement with the comedy. The best of the Roman tragic poets were Actius and Pacuvius, of whom we have no remains. The tragedies published under the name of Seneca are generally esteemed the work of different hands. They are none of them of superlative merit.

7. Velleius Paterculus remarks, that the era of the perfection of Roman literature was the age of Cicero (106—43 B.C.); comprehending all of the preceding times whom Cicero might have seen, and all of the succeeding who might have seen him. Cicero, Quintilian, and Pliny, celebrate in high terms the writings of the elder Cato, whose principal works were historical, and have entirely perished. We have his fragments, *de Re Rustica*, in which he was imitated by Varro, one of the earliest of the good writers among the Romans, and a man of universal erudition. Of the variety of his talents we may judge, not only from the splendid eulogium of Cicero, but from the circumstance of Pliny having recourse to his authority in every book of his *Natural History*.

8. Sallust (86—34 B.C.), in order of time, comes next to Varro. This writer introduced an important improvement on history, as treated by the Greek historians, by applying (as Dionysius of Halicarnassus says) the science of philosophy to

the study of facts. Sallust is therefore to be considered as the father of philosophic history; a species of writing which has been so successfully cultivated in modern times. He is an admirable writer for the matter of his compositions, which evince great judgment and knowledge of human nature; but by no means commendable for his style and manner of writing. He affects singularity of expression, an antiquated phraseology, and a petulant brevity and sententiousness, which has nothing of the dignity of the historical style.

9. Cæsar has much more purity of style than Sallust, and more correctness and simplicity of expression: but his Commentaries wanting that amplitude of diction and fulness of illustration which is essential to history, are rather of the nature of annals—but as such, they have never been excelled.

10. In all the requisites of an historian, Livy (*d.* 19 A. C.) stands unrivalled among the Romans; possessing consummate judgment in the selection of facts, perspicuity of arrangement, sagacious reflection, sound views of policy, with the most copious, pure, and eloquent expression. It has been objected, that his speeches derogate from the truth of history; but this was a prevalent taste with the ancient writers; and as those speeches are always known to be the composition of the historian, the reader is not deceived. As to the style of Livy, though in general excellent, we sometimes perceive in it, and most commonly in the speeches, an affectation of the pointed sentences (the *vibrantes sententiolæ*) and obscurity of the declaimers, which evinces the pernicious influence acquired by those teachers at Rome since the time of Cicero and Sallust.

11. In the decline of Roman literature, Tacitus (*f.* 90 A. C.) is an historian of no common merit. He successfully cultivated the method pointed out by Sallust, of applying philosophy to history. In this he displays great knowledge of human nature, and penetrates with singular acuteness into the secret springs of policy and the motives of actions. But his fault is, that he is too much of a politician, drawing his characters after the model of his own mind; ever assigning actions and events to pre-conceived scheme and design, and allowing too little for the operation of accidental causes, which often have the greatest influence on human affairs. Tacitus, in his style, professedly imitated that of Sallust; adopting all the ancient phraseology, as well as the new idioms introduced into the Roman language by that writer. To his brevity and abruptness, he added most of the faults of the declaiming school. His expression, therefore, though extremely forcible, is often enigmatically obscure; the very worst property that style can possess.

12. Among the eminent Roman poets (after the dramatic) Lucretius (*d.* 55 B. C.) deserves first to be noticed. He has great inequality, being at some times verbose, rugged, and perplexed, and at others displaying all the elements as well as the

fire of poetry. This may be in great part attributed to his subject. Philosophical disquisition is unsuitable to poetry. It demands a dry precision of thought and expression, rejecting all excursive fancy and ornament of diction. That luxuriance of imagery which is the soul of poetry, is raving and impertinence when applied to philosophy.

13. Catullus, the contemporary of Lucretius, is the earliest of the Roman lyric poets. His Epigrams are pointed and satirical, but too licentious; his Idyllia is tender, natural, and picturesque. He flourished in the age of Julius Cæsar.

14. In the succeeding age of Augustus, poetry attained to its highest elevation among the Romans. Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Tibullus, were all contemporaries; and it may be safely asserted that these poets, in their several departments, were never equalled in any of the succeeding ages of the empire. Virgil is allowed the same rank among the Roman poets as Homer among the Greek. If Homer excels him in the sublime, he surpasses the Greek in the tender and the elegant. The transcendent merits of Homer are sullied by occasional defects; Virgil is the model of a correct taste. The difference of manner in the *Bucolics*, the *Georgics*, and the *Æneid*, shows that Virgil was capable of excelling in various departments of poetry; and such is the opinion of Martial, who affirms, that he could have surpassed Horace in lyric poetry, and Varius in tragedy.

15. Horace excels as a lyric poet, a satirist, and a critic. In his odes there is more variety than in those of either Anacreon or Pindar; and he can alternately display the sublimity of the one, and the jocose vein of the other. His Satires have that characteristic slyness and obliquity of censure, associated with humour and pleasantry, which strongly distinguish them from the stern and cutting sarcasm of Juvenal, (*fl.* 80 A.C.) As a critic, his rules are taken chiefly from Aristotle; but they contain the elements of a just taste in poetical composition, and therefore do not admit of variation. The Satires of Juvenal, compared with those of Horace, are deficient in facetiousness and urbanity; but they are superior in acuteness of thought, and in manly vigour of sentiment.

16. In variety of talent, without supreme excellence, and ease and elegance of numbers, no Roman poet has excelled Ovid, (*d.* 17 A.C.) In his *Metamorphoses* particularly, with great fancy, we have specimens of the pathetic, the descriptive, the eloquent, and even the sublime. His *Elegies* have more of nature and of real passion than those of either Tibullus or Propertius, (*fl.* 20. A.C.) His amatory verses have much tenderness, but are too frequently loose, and even grossly licentious.

17. There is nothing more elegant than the compositions of Tibullus, nothing more delicate than the turn of his expression; but it is not the language of passion. The sentiments are tender, but their power of affecting the heart is weakened by the visible

care and solicitude of the poet for refined phraseology and polished numbers; nor is there either much fancy or variety of thought. A single elegy exhibits the sentiments of the whole.

18. Martial is the last of the Roman poets who can be mentioned with high approbation, (*fl.* 90 A. C.) His Epigrams, independent of their art and ingenuity, are valuable, as throwing light upon the Roman manners. He possesses, above every other poet, a *naiveté* of expression, which is chiefly observable in his serious Epigrams. He is well characterized by the younger Pliny, "*ingeniosus, acer, et qui in scribendo et salis haberet et fellis, nec candoris minus.*" *Epist.* iii. 21.

19. Luxuriance of ornament, and the fondness for point, and brilliancy of thought and expression, are certain indications of the decline of good taste. These characters were discernible even in Martial, and strongly mark the Latin poets of the succeeding ages. Lucan (*fl.* 50 A. C.) has some scattered examples of genuine poetic imagery, and Persius (*fl.* 50 A. C.) some happy strokes of animated satire; but they scarcely compensate the affected obscurity of the one, and the bombast of the other. The succeeding poets, Statius, Silius-Italicus, and Valerius Flaccus, in their attempts at the most difficult of all species of poetry, the epic, have only more signally displayed the inferiority of their genius, and the manifest decay of the art, (*fl.* 80—90 A. C.)

SECTION XLVIII.

STATE OF PHILOSOPHY AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. THE Romans, in the earlier periods of the republic, being constantly engaged in war, had little leisure to bestow on the cultivation of the sciences, and had no idea of philosophical speculation. It was not till the end of the sixth century from the building of the city, and in the interval between the war with Perseus of Macedon and the third Punic war, that philosophy made its first appearance at Rome. A few learned Achæans, banished from their native country, had settled in various parts of Italy, and, applying themselves to the cultivation of literature and the education of youth, diffused a taste for those studies hitherto unknown to the Romans. The elder citizens regarded these pursuits with an unfavourable eye. Jealous of the introduction of foreign manners with foreign studies, the senate banished the Greek philosophers from Rome. But an Athenian embassy arriving soon after, brought thither Carneades and Critolaus, who, by their discourses, revived the taste for the Greek philosophy, and left behind them many able disciples, who publicly taught their doctrines.

2. It was natural that those systems should be most generally adopted which were most suitable to the national character. While the manners of the Romans had yet a tincture of ancient severity, the Stoical system prevailed. Scipio, Lælius, and the younger Cato, rank among its chief partisans.

3. The philosophy of Aristotle was little known in Rome till the age of Cicero. Cratippus and Tyrannion then taught his system with great reputation. Yet Cicero complains that the Peripatetic philosophy was little understood at Rome; and, on that account, he sent his son to study its doctrines in the schools of Athens.

4. Lucullus, whose stay in Greece gave him an opportunity of being acquainted with all the different sects, disseminated, on his return to Rome, a very general taste for philosophy. His patronage of learned men, and his liberality in allowing his library to be open for the public use, contributed greatly to the promotion of literature.

5. The Old and New Academy had each their partisans. Of the former, which may be termed the Stoico-Platonic, the most illustrious disciples were Marcus Brutus and Terentius Varro. To the philosophical talents of Brutus, and the universal erudition of Varro, the writings of Cicero bear the most ample testimony. Cicero himself must be deemed the most eminent of all the Roman philosophers. He is classed among the principal supporters of the New Academy; though it seems rather to have been his purpose to elucidate the Greek Philosophy in general, than to rank himself among the disciples of any particular sect.

6. The cultivation of Physics, or Natural Philosophy, seems to have been little attended to either by the Greeks or Romans. Unless Agriculture should be classed under this description, we know of no Roman authors, except Varro and the elder Pliny, who seem to have bestowed much attention on the operations of nature. The works of the former have perished except a few fragments; but the Natural History of Pliny is a most valuable storehouse of the knowledge of the ancients in Physics, Economics, and the Arts and Sciences. It is to be regretted that the style is unsuitable to the matter, being too frequently florid, declamatory, and obscure.

7. The philosophy of Epicurus was unknown in the early ages of the Roman commonwealth. It was introduced with luxury, and kept pace in its advancement with the corruption of manners. Cineas having discoursed on the tenets of Epicurus at the table of Pyrrhus, Fabricius exclaimed, "May the enemies of Rome ever entertain such principles!" Yet these principles were, in a short time from that period, but too current among her own citizens.

SECTION XLIX.

OF THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE MANNERS OF THE ROMANS.

1. THE manners of the Romans in the early ages of the republic were so different from those of the latter times, that one should be led to suppose some very extraordinary causes to have co-operated to produce so remarkable a change; yet the transition is easy to be accounted for. A spirit of temperance, of frugality, and probity, is the characteristic of every infant establishment. A virtuous simplicity of manners, and a rigour of military discipline, paved the way for the extension of the Roman arms, and for their prodigious conquests; these conquests introduced wealth, luxury, and corruption.

2. In the early times, the patricians, when in the country, forgot the distinction of ranks, and laboured in the cultivation of their fields, like the meanest plebeians. We have the examples of Cincinnatus the dictator, Curius, who expelled Pyrrhus from Italy, the elder Cato, and Scipio Africanus, the conqueror of Hannibal, and the destroyer of Carthage. The town was visited only every ninth or market-day, on which occasions they provided themselves with necessaries for the week, and took their part in the public business of the republic. In those times of virtuous simplicity, says Sallust, '*Domi militæque boni mores colebantur.—Duabus artibus, audacia in bello, ubi pax evenerat, æquitate, seque remque publicam curabant.*' But when, in consequence of this very discipline, and these manners, the Romans had extended their dominion, they imported with the wealth of the conquered nations their states, their manners, and their vices.

3. The Romans had no natural taste in the fine arts. On the conquest of Greece, an immense field opened at once to their eyes, and the masterpieces of art poured in upon them in abundance. But their excellencies they could not appreciate. The Roman luxury, so far as the arts were concerned, was in general displayed in an awkward, heavy, and tasteless magnificence.

4. The public and private life of the Romans will be best elucidated by a short account of the manner in which the day was passed at Rome, both by the higher and lower ranks of the people. The morning hours were spent by a part of the citizens in visiting the temples; by others in attending the levees of the great. The *Cientes* waited on their *Patroni*; the patricians visited each other, or paid their compliments to the leaders of the republic. Popularity was always the first object of ambition at Rome, as paving the way to all advancement. From the levee they proceeded to the Forum, either to assist in the public business, or for amusement. There the time was spent till noon, *the hour of dinner* among the Romans, chiefly a very light repast,

and of which it was not customary to invite any guests to partake. After dinner the youth repaired to the Campus Martius, where they occupied themselves in athletic exercises and sports till sunset. The elder class retired for an hour to repose, and then passed the afternoon in their porticoes, galleries, or libraries, where they enjoyed the conversation of their friends, or heard recitations of literary works; others repaired to the theatres, or to the shows of the circus and amphitheatre.

5. Combats of gladiators were introduced for the first time, about the 490th year of Rome, 264 B. C., by Marius and Decimus Brutus, and soon became a most favourite amusement, as did the combats with wild beasts. The spirit of luxury, which in general is not unfavourable to humanity, showed its progress among the Romans by an increasing ferocity and inhumanity of the public spectacles. Theatrical entertainments were in high request. (See *supra*, Sect. XLV. § 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.) The taste for pantomime came to such a height, that the art was taught in public schools, and the nobility and people were divided into parties in favour of the rival performers: an abuse which called at length for the interposition of the laws.

6. From the porticoes, or from the theatre and amphitheatre, it was customary to go to the baths, of which there were many for the use of the public, while the rich had them in their own houses, vying with each other in this as in every other article of luxury or magnificence. From the bath they went immediately to supper, generally about the ninth or tenth hour, counting from sunrise. At table they reclined on couches. The luxury of the Roman suppers far exceeded everything known among the moderns. An *anteceniam* of pickles and spices was presented to prepare and sharpen the appetite. Cookery became a science. The number and costliness of the dishes were incredible. The entertainment was heightened by everything gratifying to the senses; by male and female dancers, musicians, pantomimes, and even shows of gladiators.

7. In the end of the republic, pleasure and amusement were the darling objects of all ranks of the citizens: they sought no more than *panem et circenses*.

SECTION L.

OF THE ART OF WAR AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. FROM the prodigious success which attended the arms of the Romans, and that dominion they acquired over the greatest part of the known world, it seems a natural inference, that they must have carried the military art to a higher degree of perfection than any other of the contemporary nations. Vegetius expressly assigns their extensive conquests to that cause alone. It is the discipline of *an army that makes the multitude act as one man*.

It likewise increases the courage of troops; for each individual confides in the steady co-operation of his fellows.

2. From the constant practice of athletic exercises, the Romans were inured from infancy to hardiness and fatigue, and bred to that species of life which a soldier leads in the most active campaign in the field.

3. Twenty-four military tribunes were chosen annually; fourteen from the order of the *Equites*, and ten from the citizens. The people were then commanded by an edict of the consuls to assemble on a particular day, when the levies were made. The tribes were then called out, and divided into their respective number of centuries; each century presenting by rotation as many soldiers as there were legions intended to be raised. The tribunes were divided among the several legions; and the tribunes of each legion took their turn by rotation in the selection of the men presented by the centuries. By this plan the soldiers from each century were equally distributed in each legion. (See *supra*, Sect. XXXV. § 15.) The number of soldiers in the legion was various at different periods, from 3,000 to 10,000 and 11,000.

4. Among the ancient nations there were usually but two different arrangements of the troops in order of battle. The one the *Phalanx*, or close arrangement in parallelogram, intersected only by great divisions; a disposition commonly used by the Greeks, and by most of the barbarous nations. The other the *Quincunx*, or *Chequer*, consisting of small companies or platoons, disposed in three straight lines, with alternate spaces between them, equal to the space occupied by each company. In the first line were the *Hastati*, in the second the *Principes*, and in the third the *Triarii*. On the flanks of the first line were the cavalry, likewise in detached companies; and in front of the line were the *Velites*, or light-armed troops, who usually began by a skirmishing attack, and then were withdrawn to make way for the main body to come into action. The arms of the legion were, for the *hastati* and *principes*, the *pilum*, or heavy javelin, and the sword and buckler; and for the *triarii*, the long spear, with the sword and buckler. The advantages of this arrangement were, that the line of battle could be three times formed with fresh troops, and that it was more fitted than any other for rapid changes of movement.

5. Notwithstanding these advantages the *quincunx* went into disuse towards the end of the republic, and from that time various arrangements of the legion were used according to circumstances. The tactic of the Romans is supposed to have been at its greatest pitch of excellence during the Punic wars. Hannibal was a great master of the science, and the Romans profited by the experience of his ability. The battle of Cannæ, as described by Polybius, affords signal evidence of the great talents of the Carthaginian general. That description has been misrepresented by Folard, but is accurately explained in the *Memoires*

Militaires of M. Guischart. Had the quincunx disposition been kept by the Roman army in that engagement, the event might have been very different, as it would have disappointed the effect of an artful manœuvre planned by Hannibal, on observing his enemy's army arranged in the unusual order of the phalanx.

6. The art of intrenchment was carried to great perfection by the Romans, particularly by Julius Cæsar, who considered it possible to make up for any inferiority of force by increasing the strength of his intrenchments. Thus with 60,000 men he defended himself in his intrenchments before Alexia, while the lines of circumvallation were attacked by 240,000 Gauls, and the lines of countervallation by 80,000, without effect. These intrenchments consisted of a ditch from nine to fifteen feet in depth and width, fenced on the inside by the mound of excavated earth, and on the outside by strong stakes with pointed branches.

7. In besieging a town, several camps were formed around the place, joined to each other by lines of circumvallation and countervallation. A mound of earth (*agger*) was raised, beginning by a gentle slope from one of the camps, and gradually rising in elevation as it approached the city. The front, where the workmen were employed, was defended by a curtain of hides fixed on strong posts. On this mound the engines of attack (*Catapultæ* for the discharge of heavy stones, and *Balistæ* for arrows), were advanced, till they played on the very spot which the besiegers wished to assail. The same machines were used by the besieged for annoying the enemy. When the batteries from the terrace had silenced those on the walls, the battering-ram (*aries*) was then brought up under a penthouse (*testudo*), and, if it once reached the wall, was generally decisive of the fate of the town. The main object of the besieged was therefore to prevent its approach by every power of annoyance. Stones, darts, and combustible matters, were continually launched upon the assailants; and sometimes a mine was dug from the city to scoop away the terrace and all its engines. These arts of attack and defence of fortified places were in general used among the nations of antiquity, and continued down to modern times, till the invention of gunpowder.

8. The naval military art was utterly unknown among the Romans till the first Punic war. A Carthaginian galley was the first model; and in the space of two months they equipped a fleet of 100 galleys of five banks of oars, and twenty of three banks. The structure of these galleys and the mode of arranging the rowers, may be learned from the ancient sculptures and medals. The combatants at sea assailed at a distance with javelins, missile combustibles, and sometimes with *catapultæ* and *balistæ*; but the serious attack was made in boarding, when the vessels grappled together by means of a bridge let down from the prow.

9. In the times of the empire, the Romans maintained their

distant conquests, not only by their armies, but by their fleets, which were moored in the large rivers and bays, and generally preserved a fixed station, as did the legions.

SECTION LI.

REFLECTIONS ARISING FROM A VIEW OF THE ROMAN HISTORY DURING THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. THE history of all nations evinces, that there is an inseparable connection between the morals of a people and their political prosperity. But we have no stronger demonstration of this truth than the annals of the Roman commonwealth. To limit to republics alone the necessity of virtue as a principle, is a chimerical notion, fraught with dangerous consequences. "*Quid leges sine moribus vanae proficiunt,*" is a sentiment equally applicable to all governments whatever; and no political system, however excellent its fabric, can possess any measure of duration, without that powerful cement, virtue, in the principles and manners of the people.—*Supra*, Sect. XXIX. § 4.

2. The love of our country, and the desire for its rational liberty, are noble and virtuous feelings, and their prevalence is ever a test of the integrity of the national morals. But there is no term which has been more prostituted than the word liberty. Among a corrupted people, the cry for liberty is heard the loudest among the most profligate of the community. With these its meaning has no relation to patriotism; it imports no more than the aversion to restraint; and the personal character of the demagogue, and the private morals of his disciples, are always sufficient to unmask the counterfeit. The spirit of patriotism, and a general corruption of manners, cannot possibly be co-existent in the same age and nation.

3. On the other hand, while the morals of a people are pure, no public misfortune is irretrievable, nor any political situation so desperate, that hope may not remain of a favourable change. In such a crisis, the spirit of patriotism pervading all ranks of the state will soon recover the national prosperity. The history of the Roman people, and that of the Grecian states, in various crises, both of honour and of disgrace, afford proofs alike of this position and of its converse.

4. The national character of the Romans seems to have undergone its most remarkable change for the worse from the time of the destruction of their rival Carthage. Sallust assigns the cause: "*Ante Carthaginem deletam,—metus hostilis in bonis artibus civitatem retinebat. Sed ubi illa formido mentibus decessit scilicet ea quæ secundæ res amant, lascivia atque superbia invasere.*"

5. In the last ages of the commonwealth, avarice and ambi-

tion, unrestrained by moral principle, were the chief motives of the Roman conquests. It was sufficient reason for going to war, that a country offered a tempting object to the rapacity and ambition of the oligarchy. The conquest of Italy paved the way for the reduction of foreign nations. Hence the Romans imported, with their wealth, the manners, the luxuries, and the vices of the nations they subdued. The generals returned not, as formerly, after a successful war, to the labours of the field, and to a life of temperance and industry. They were now the governors of kingdoms and provinces; and after the period of their command abroad, disdaining the restraints of a subject, they could be satisfied with nothing less than sovereignty at home. The armies, debauched by the plunder of kingdoms, were completely disposed to support them in all their schemes of ambition; and the populace, won by corruption, always took part with the chief who best could pay for their favour and support. Force or bribery overruled every election; and the inhabitants of distant states, now holding the rights of citizens, were brought to Rome at the command of the demagogue, to influence any popular contest, and turn the scale in his favour. In a government thus irretrievably destroyed by the decay of those springs which supported it, it was of little consequence by the hands of what particular tyrant, usurper, or demagogue, its ruin was finally accomplished.

6. From the consideration of the rise and fall of the principal states of antiquity, it has been a commonly received observation, that the constitution of empires has, like the human body, a period of growth, maturity, decline, and extinction. But arguments from analogy are extremely deceiving, and particularly so when the analogy is from physical to moral truths. The human body is, from its fabric, naturally subject to decay, and is perpetually undergoing a change from time. The organs, at first weak, attain gradually their perfect strength; and thence, by a similar gradation, proceed to decay and dissolution. This is an immutable law of its nature. But the springs of the body politic do not necessarily undergo a perpetual change from time. It is not regularly progressive from weakness to strength, and thence to decay and dissolution; nor is it under the influence of any principle of corruption which may not be checked, and even eradicated by wholesome laws. Thus the beginning of the corruption of Sparta is attributed to the breach by Lysander of the institutions of Lycurgus, in introducing gold into the treasury of the state instead of her iron money. But was this a necessary or an unavoidable measure? Perhaps a single vote in the senate decreed its adoption, and therefore another suffrage might have saved, or long postponed, the downfall of the commonwealth. The Roman republic owed its dissolution to the extension of its dominions. Had it been a capital crime for any Roman citizen to have proposed to carry the arms of the republic beyond the

limits of Italy, its constitution might have been preserved for many ages beyond the period of its actual duration. "Accustom your mind," said Phocion to Aristias, "to discern, in the fate of nations, that recompense which the great Author of nature has annexed to the practice of virtue; and in their adversity, the chastisement which he has thought proper to bestow on vice. No state ever ceased to be prosperous, but in consequence of having departed from those institutions to which she owed her prosperity." History indeed has shown, that all states and empires have had their period of duration; but history, instructing us in the causes which have produced their decline and downfall, inculcates also this salutary lesson, that they themselves are in general the masters of their destiny, and that all nations may, and most certainly ought to aspire at immortality.

7. It was a great *desideratum* in ancient politics, that a government should possess within itself the power of periodical reformation; a capacity of checking any overgrowth of authority in any of its branches, and of winding up the machine, or bringing back the constitution to its first principles, or enlarging it in accordance with the progress of society. To the want of such a power in the states of antiquity, which was ineffectually endeavoured to be supplied by such partial contrivances as the Ostracism and Petalism,* we may certainly ascribe in no small degree the decay of those states; for in their governments, when the balance was once destroyed, the evil grew worse from day to day, and admitted of no remedy but a revolution, or entire change of the system.—The British constitution possesses this inestimable advantage over all the governments of antiquity, that the administration of government is controlled by parliament, which includes a numerous body of the representatives of the people, who oppose themselves to the abuses that would otherwise arise. But of this we shall afterwards treat in its proper place.

SECTION LII.

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS, 30 B. C.—54 A. C.

1. THE battle of Actium decided the fate of the commonwealth; and Octavius, now named Augustus by the senate, and invested with the title of Imperator, was master of the Roman empire.† He possessed completely the sagacity of discerning what character was best fitted for gaining the affections of the people he govern-

* *Petalism* at Syracuse answered to *Ostracism* at Athens. When it was proposed to banish any one suspected of aspiring to sovereign power, or considered dangerous to the state, the votes were given by writing the names of the party on a *leaf* at the former place, and at the latter on a *shell*: hence the above terms from the Greek name of the substance on which the votes were written.

† The empire was bounded on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by the Rhine and the Danube, on the east by the Euphrates and the sandy desert of

ed, and the versatility of temper and genius to assume it. His virtues, though the result of policy, not of nature, were certainly favourable to the happiness, and even to the liberties, of his subjects. The fate of Cæsar warned him of the insecurity of an usurped dominion; and therefore, while he studiously imitated the engaging manners and clemency of his great predecessor, he affected a much higher degree of moderation and respect for the rights of the people.

2. The temple of Janus was shut (29 B.C.), which had been open for 188 years, since the beginning of the second Punic war; an event productive of universal joy. "The Romans," says Condillac, "now believed themselves a free people, since they had no longer to fight for their liberty." The sovereign kept up this delusion, by maintaining the ancient forms of the republican constitution, in the election of magistrates, &c., though they were nothing more than forms. He even pretended to consider his own function as merely a temporary administration for the public benefit. Invested with the consulate and censorship, he went through the regular forms of periodical election to those offices; and, at the end of the seventh year of his government, actually announced to the senate his resignation of all authority. The consequence was a general supplication of the senate and people, that he would not abandon the republic, which he had saved from destruction. "Since it must be so," said he, "I accept the empire for ten years, unless the public tranquillity should before that time permit me to enjoy that retirement I passionately long for." He repeated the same mockery five times in the course of his government, accepting the administration sometimes for ten, and sometimes only for five years.

3. It was much to the credit of Augustus, that in the government of the empire he reposed unlimited confidence in Mæcenas, a most able minister, who had sincerely at heart the interest and happiness of the people. It was by his excellent counsels that all public affairs were conducted, and the most salutary laws enacted for the remedy of public grievances, and even the correction of the morals of the people. It was to his patronage that literature and the arts owed their encouragement and advancement. It was by his influence and wise instructions that Augustus assumed those virtues to which his heart was a stranger, and which, in their tendency to the happiness of his subjects, were equally effectual as if the genuine fruits of his nature.

4. On the death of Marcellus (23 B.C.), the nephew and son-in-law of Augustus, a prince of great hopes, the emperor bestowed his chief favour on Marcus Agrippa, giving him his daughter Julia, the widow of Marcellus, in marriage, (17 B.C.) Agrippa had considerable military talents, and was successful

Syria, and on the south by Ethiopia and the deserts of Arabia. The population of the countries included within these bounds was estimated at 120 millions, half of these being *slaves*, 40 millions *tributaries and freedmen*, and only 20 millions who enjoyed the full rights of citizens.

in accomplishing the reduction of Spain, and subduing the revolted provinces of Asia. Augustus associated him with himself in the office of censor, and would probably have given him a share of the empire; but the death of Agrippa occasioned a new arrangement. The daughter of Augustus now took for her third husband Tiberius, who became the son-in-law of the emperor by a double tie, for Augustus had previously married his mother, Livia. This artful woman, removing all of the imperial family who stood betwixt her and the object of her ambition, thus made room for the succession of her son Tiberius, who, on his part, bent all his attention to gain the favour and confidence of Augustus. On the return of Tiberius from a successful campaign against the Germans, the people were made to solicit the emperor to confer on him the government of the provinces, and the command of the armies. Augustus now gradually withdrew himself from the cares of empire. He died soon after at Nola in Campania, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and forty-fourth of his imperial reign, (year of Rome 767, and 14 A. C.)

5. The long and, for Italy itself, peaceable reign of Augustus, has generally been considered a fortunate and brilliant period of Roman history, when compared with the times which preceded and followed it. Security of person and property were re-established; the arts of peace flourished under the benign patronage of Augustus and his minister Mæcenas; and we may add that as the formal restoration of the republic would only have been the signal for new commotions, the government, of Augustus, if not the very best, was at least the best that Rome could bear. The alteration in the form of government and the heterogeneous nature of the empire acquired by war, led to the necessity of standing armies. The army consisted of 400,000 men; thirty legions of 12,500 men,—eleven on the Danube, five on the Rhine, three in Britain, one in Spain, eight on the Euphrates, one in Egypt, one in Africa, and 20,000 prætorian guards in Italy. The navy had 50,000 men. Two fleets were stationed at Ravenna and Naples, and there were naval stations at Frejus, in the Black Sea, in the British Channel, the Rhine, and Danube. Augustus reformed the financial administration, his chief aim being to place everything, as far as possible, upon a solid and lasting foundation. A considerable part of the lustre thrown on the reign of Augustus is owing to the splendid colouring bestowed on his character by the poets and other authors who adorned his court, and repaid his favours by their adulation. Assuredly other sovereigns of much higher merits have been less fortunate in obtaining the applause of posterity:

———
 Illacrymabiles
 Urgentur, ignotique longa
 Nocte, carent quia vate sacro.

One great event distinguished the reign of Augustus, the birth

of our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST, which, according to the best authorities, happened in the 754th year of Rome, and four years before the vulgar date of the Christian era.*

6. Augustus, by his testament, had named Tiberius his heir, together with his mother Livia, and substituted to them Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and Germanicus. Tiberius was vicious, debauched, and cruel; yet the very dread of his character operated in securing an easy succession to the empire. An embassy from the senate entreated him to accept the government, which he modestly affected to decline, but suffered himself to be won by their supplications. Notwithstanding this symptom of moderation, it soon appeared that the power enjoyed by his predecessor was too limited for the ambition of Tiberius. It was not enough that the substance of the republic was gone; the very appearance of it was now to be abolished. The people were no longer assembled, and the magistrates of the state were supplied by the imperial will.

7. Germanicus, the nephew of Tiberius, became the object of his jealousy, from the glory he had acquired by his military exploits in Germany, and the high favour in which he stood with the Roman people. He was recalled in the midst of his successes, and despatched to the oriental provinces, where he soon after died, as was generally believed, of poison, administered by the emperor's command, 19 A. C.

8. In the eighteenth year of Tiberius, our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST, the Divine Author of our religion, suffered death upon the cross, a sacrifice and propitiation for the sins of mankind.

9. Ælius Sejanus, prefect of the prætorian guards, the favourite counsellor of Tiberius, and the obsequious minister of his tyranny and crimes, conceived the daring project of a revolution, which should place himself on the throne, by the extermination of the whole imperial family. Drusus, the son of the emperor, was cut off by poison. Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, with the elder of her sons, was banished, and the younger confined to prison. Tiberius himself was persuaded by Sejanus, under the pretence of the discovery of plots for his assassination, to retire from Rome to the Isle of Capreæ, and devolve the government upon his faithful minister. But while Sejanus, thus far successful, meditated the last step to the accomplishment of his wishes, by the murder of his sovereign, his treason was detected; and the emperor despatched his mandate to the senate, which was followed by his immediate sentence and execution, 31 A. C. The public indignation was not satisfied with his death: the populace tore his body to pieces, and flung it into the Tiber. In his fall, every one that could be considered as connected with him, became involved.

* *Vide Dr Playfair's System of Chronology*, pp. 40, 50—a work of great research and accuracy, and by far the best on that subject.

10. Tiberius now became utterly negligent of the cares of government, and the imperial power was displayed only in public executions, confiscations, and scenes of cruelty and rapine. At length the tyrant, falling sick, was strangled in his bed by Macro, the new prefect, who had succeeded Sejanus in the command of the prætorian guards, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign, 37 A. C.

11. Tiberius, by his testament, had nominated for his heir Caligula, the son of Germanicus, his grandson by adoption, and joined with him Tiberius, the son of Drusus, his grandson by blood. The former enjoyed, on his father's account, the favour of the people; and the senate, to gratify them, set aside the right of his colleague, and conferred on him the empire undivided. The commencement of his reign was signalized by a few acts of clemency and even good policy. He restored the privileges of the comitia, and abolished arbitrary prosecutions for crimes of state. But, tyrannical and cruel by nature, he substituted military execution for legal punishment. The provinces were loaded with the most oppressive taxes, and daily confiscations filled the imperial coffers. The follies and absurdities of Caligula were equal to his vices, and it is hard to say whether he was most the object of hatred or of contempt to his subjects. He at length perished by assassination, in the fourth year of his reign, and twenty-ninth of his age, 41 A. C.

12. Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, was the first emperor named by the prætorian guards, who had been the murderers of his nephew. He was the son of Octavia, the sister of Augustus; a man of weak intellects, and of no education; yet his short reign was marked by an enterprise of importance. He undertook the reduction of Britain; and, after visiting the island in person, left his generals, Plautius and Vespasian, to prosecute a war which was carried on for several years with various success. The Silures, or inhabitants of South Wales, under their king, Caractacus (Caradoc), made a brave resistance, but were finally defeated, and Caractacus led captive to Rome, where the magnanimity of his demeanour procured him respect and admiration.

13. The civil administration of Claudius was weak and contemptible. He was the slave even of his domestics, and the dupe of his infamous wives, Messalina and Agrippina. The former, abandoned to the most shameful profligacy, was at length put to death, on suspicion of treasonable designs. The latter, who was the daughter of Germanicus, bent her utmost endeavours to secure the succession to the empire to her son Domitius Enobarbus, and employed every engine of vice and inhumanity to remove the obstacles to the accomplishment of her wishes. Having at length prevailed on Claudius to adopt her son, and confer on him the title of Cæsar, to the exclusion of *his own son* Britannicus, she now made room for the immediate elevation of Domitius, by poisoning her husband. Claudius

was put to death in the fifteenth year of his reign, and sixty-third of his age, 54 A. C.

SECTION LIII.

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS, 54—138 A. C.

1. THE son of Agrippina assumed the name of Nero Claudius. He had enjoyed the benefit of a good education under the philosopher Seneca, but reaped from his instructions no other fruit than a pedantic affectation of taste and learning, with no real pretension to either. While controlled by his tutor Seneca, and by Burrhus, captain of the prætorian guards, a man of worth and ability, Nero maintained for a short time a decency of public conduct; but the restraint was intolerable, and nature soon broke out. His real character was a compound of everything that is base and inhuman. He destroyed Britannicus and all the Julian family; and in the murder of his mother Agrippina, he revenged the crime she had committed in raising him to the throne; he rewarded the fidelity of Burrhus by poisoning him; and as a last kindness to his tutor Seneca, he allowed him to choose the mode of his death. It was his darling amusement to exhibit on the stage and amphitheatre as an actor, musician, or gladiator. At length, become the object of universal hatred and contempt, a rebellion of his subjects, headed by Vindex, an illustrious Gaul, hurled this monster from the throne. He had not courage to attempt resistance; and a slave, at his own request, despatched him with a dagger. Nero perished in the thirtieth year of his age, after a reign of fourteen years, 68 A. C.

2. [By the death of Nero the house of Cæsar became extinct; and this gave rise to so many commotions, that in somewhat less than two years, four emperors by violence obtained possession of the throne. The right of the senate to name, or at least to confirm the successors to the throne, was still indeed acknowledged; but as the armies had found out that they could create emperors, the power of the senate dwindled into an empty ceremony.] Galba, the successor of Nero, was of an ancient and illustrious family. He was in the seventy-third year of his age when the senate, ratifying the choice of the prætorian bands, proclaimed him emperor. But an impolitic rigour of discipline soon disgusted the army; the avarice of his disposition, grudging the populace their favourite games and spectacles, deprived him of their affections; and some iniquitous prosecutions and confiscations excited general discontent and mutiny. Galba adopted and designed for his successor the able and virtuous Piso; a measure which excited the jealousy of Otho, his former favourite, and led him to form the daring plan of raising himself to the throne by the destruction of both. He found the

prætorians apt to his purpose; they proclaimed him emperor, and presented him, as a grateful offering, the heads of Galba and Piso, who were slain in quelling the msurrection, January, 69 A. C. Galba had reigned only seven months, "Major privato visus," says Tacitus, "dum privatus fuit, et omnium consensu capax imperii, nisi imperasset."

3. Otho had a formidable rival in Vitellius, who had been proclaimed emperor by his army in Germany. It is hard to say which of the competitors was, in point of abilities, the more despicable, or in character the more infamous. A decisive battle was fought at Bedriacum, near Mantua, where the army of Otho was defeated, and their commander, in a fit of despair, ended his life by his own hand, after a reign of three months, April 16, 69 A. C.

4. The reign of Vitellius was of eight months duration. He is said to have proposed Nero for his model, and it was just that he should resemble him in his fate. Vespasian, who had obtained from Nero the charge of the war against the Jews, which he had conducted with ability and success, was proclaimed emperor by his troops in the East; and a great part of Italy submitting to his generals, Vitellius meanly capitulated to save his life by a resignation of the empire. The people, indignant at his dastardly spirit, compelled him to an effort of resistance, but the attempt was fruitless. Priscus, one of the generals of Vespasian, took possession of Rome, and Vitellius was massacred, and his body flung into the Tiber, December 20, 69 A. C.

5. Vespasian, though of mean descent, was worthy of the empire, and reigned with high popularity for ten years. He possessed great clemency of disposition; his manners were affable and engaging, and his mode of life was characterized by simplicity and frugality. He respected the ancient forms of the constitution, restored the senate to its deliberative rights, and acted by its authority in the administration of all public affairs. The only blemish in his character was a tincture of avarice, and even that is greatly extenuated by the laudable and patriotic use which he made of his revenues.—Under his reign, and by the arms of his son Titus, was terminated the war against the Jews. They had been brought under the yoke of Rome by Pompey, who took Jerusalem. Under Augustus they were governed for some time by Herod as viceroy; but the tyranny of his son Archelaus was the cause of his banishment, and the reduction of Judea into the ordinary condition of a Roman province. Rebell on every slight occasion, Nero had sent Vespasian to reduce them to order, and he had just prepared for the siege of Jerusalem, when he was called to Rome to assume the government of the empire. His son Titus wished to spare the city, and tried every means to prevail on the Jews to surrender; but in vain; *their ruin was decreed by Heaven.* After an obstinate blockade of *six months*, Jerusalem was taken by storm, the temple burned

to ashes, and the city buried in ruins.—The Roman empire was now in profound peace. Vespasian shut the temple of Janus, and associated his eldest son Titus in the imperial dignity; he soon after died, universally lamented, at the age of sixty-nine, after a prosperous reign of nine years and eleven months, 79 A. C.

6. The character of Titus was humane, munificent, dignified, and splendid. His short reign was a period of great happiness and prosperity to the empire, and his government a constant example of virtue, justice, and beneficence. In his time happened that dreadful eruption of Vesuvius which overwhelmed the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii; and the public losses from these calamities he repaired by the sacrifice of his fortune and revenues. He died in the third year of his reign, and fortieth of his age; ever to be remembered by that most exalted epithet, *Deliciæ humani generis*; “The delight of the human race,” 81 A. C.

7. Domitian, the brother of Titus, and suspected of murdering him by poison, succeeded to the empire. He was a vicious and inhuman tyrant. A rebellion in Germany gave him occasion to signalize the barbarity of his disposition; and its consequences were long felt in the sanguinary punishments inflicted under the pretence of justice. The prodigal and voluptuous spirit of this reign was a singular contrast to its tyranny and inhumanity. The people were loaded with insupportable taxes to furnish spectacles and games for their amusement. The successes of Agricola in Britain threw a lustre on the Roman arms, no part of which reflected on the emperor, for he used this eminent commander with the basest ingratitude. [The foreign wars during this reign are rendered more worthy of remark by being the first in which the barbarians attacked the empire with success. Domitian being obliged to purchase a peace of the Daci by paying them an annual tribute.]—After a tyranny of fifteen tedious years, this monster fell at last the victim of assassination, the empress herself conducting the plot for his murder, 96 A. C.

8. Cocceius Nerva, a Cretan by birth, was chosen emperor by the senate, from respect to the virtues of his character; but too old (about seventy) for the burden of government, and of a temper too placid for the restraint of rooted corruptions and enormities, his reign was weak, inefficient, and contemptible. His only act of real merit as a sovereign, was the adoption of the virtuous Trajan as his successor. Nerva died, after a reign of sixteen months, in 98 A. C.

9. Ulpius Trajanus, a Spaniard by birth, possessed every talent and every virtue that can adorn a sovereign. He was born of a respectable, but not an ancient family, and his father had been consul. Of great military abilities, and an indefatigable spirit of enterprise, he raised the Roman arms to their ancient splendour, and greatly enlarged the boundaries of the empire. He subdued the *Dacians*, conquered the *Parthians*,

and brought under subjection Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia Felix. Nor was he less eminent in promoting the happiness of his subjects, and the internal prosperity of the empire. His largesses were humane and munificent. He was the friend and support of the virtuous indigent, and the liberal patron of every useful art and talent. His bounties were supplied by a well-judged economy in his private fortune, and a wise administration of the public finances. In his own life he was a man of simple manners, modest, affable, fond of the familiar intercourse of his friends, and sensible to all the social and benevolent affections; in a word, meriting the surname universally bestowed on him, *Trajanus Optimus*. He died at the age of sixty-three, after a glorious reign of nineteen years, 117 A. C.

10. *Ælius Adrianus*, nephew of Trajan, and worthy to fill his place, was chosen emperor by the army in the East, and his title was acknowledged by all orders of the state. He adopted a policy different from that of his predecessor—his chief aim being the preservation of peace; and, judging the limits of the empire too extensive, abandoned all the conquests of Trajan except Dacia, bounding the eastern provinces by the Euphrates. [He well made up for his pacific disposition, by a general and vigorous reform in the internal administration, and by restoring the discipline of the army, to give greater solidity to the empire]. For that purpose he visited in person the whole provinces of the empire, reforming, in his progress, all abuses, relieving his subjects of every oppressive burden, rebuilding the ruined cities, and establishing everywhere a regular and mild administration under magistrates of approved probity and humanity. He gave a discharge to the indigent debtors of the state, and appointed liberal institutions for the education of the children of the poor. To the talents of an able politician, he joined an excellent taste in the liberal arts; and his reign, which was of twenty-two years duration, was an era both of public happiness and splendour. In the last year of his life he bequeathed to the empire a double legacy, in adopting and declaring for his immediate successor Titus Aurelius Antoninus, a man of exemplary character and exalted merit, and substituting Annianus Verus to succeed upon his death. These were the Antonines, who for forty years ruled the Roman empire with consummate wisdom, ability, and virtue. Adrian died at the age of sixty-two, after a reign of twenty-two years, 138 A. C.

SECTION LIV.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

*From the Accession of Antoninus to the death of Constantine,
138—337 A. C.*

1. THE happiest reigns furnish the fewest events for the pen of history. Antoninus was the father of his people. He preferred peace to the ambition of conquest; yet in every necessary war the Roman arms had their wonted renown. The British province was enlarged by the conquests of Urbicus, and some formidable rebellions were subdued in Germany, Dacia, and the East. The domestic administration of the sovereign was dignified, splendid, and humane. With all the virtues of Numa—his love of religion, peace, and justice—he had the superior advantage of diffusing these blessings over a great portion of the world. He died at the age of seventy-four, after a reign of twenty-two years, 161 A. C.

2. Annus Verus assumed, at his accession, the name of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and he bestowed on his adopted brother, Lucius Verus, a joint administration of the empire. The former was as eminent for the worth and virtues of his character, as the latter was remarkable for profligacy, meanness, and vice. Marcus Aurelius was attached both by nature and education to the Stoical philosophy, which he has admirably taught and illustrated in his *Meditations*; and his own life was the best commentary on his precepts. The Parthians were repulsed in an attack upon the empire, and a rebellion of the Germans was subdued. In these wars the mean and worthless Verus brought disgrace upon the Roman name in every region where he commanded; but fortunately relieved the empire of its fears by an early death. The residue of the reign of Marcus Aurelius was a continued blessing to his subjects. He reformed the internal policy of the state, regulated the government of the provinces, and visited himself, for the purposes of beneficence, the most distant quarters of his dominions. “He appeared,” says an ancient author, “like some benevolent deity, diffusing around him universal peace and happiness.” He died in Pannonia, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and nineteenth of his reign, 180 A. C. [During this reign the first symptom of the great migration of nations to the south began. He succeeded in maintaining the boundaries of the empire; but he was the first who settled any of the barbarians within it, or took them into the Roman service.]

3. [By means of adoption the Roman empire had been blessed, during the last eighty years, with a succession of rulers, such as have not often fallen to the lot of any kingdom. But in Commodus, the unworthy son of Aurelius, there ascended the throne a monster of cruelty, insolence, and lewdness]. He resembled in

character his mother Faustina, a woman infamous for all manner of vice, but who yet had passed with her husband Marcus for a paragon of virtue. Commodus had from his infancy an aversion to every rational and liberal pursuit, and a fond attachment to the sports of the circus and amphitheatre, the hunting of wild beasts, and the combats of boxers and gladiators. The measures of this reign were as unimportant as the character of the sovereign was contemptible. His favourite concubine, Marcia, and some of his chief officers, prevented their own destruction by assassinating the tyrant, in the thirty-second year of his age and thirteenth of his reign, Dec. 31, 192 A. C.

4. [The extinction of the race of the Antonines, by the death of Commodus, was attended with convulsions similar to those which took place when the house of Cæsar became extinct on the death of Nero. A period of military despotism followed.]—The prætorian guards gave the empire to Publius Helvius Pertinax, the præfect of the city, a man of mean birth, but who had risen to esteem by his virtues and military talents. He applied himself with zeal to the correction of abuses; but the austerity of his government deprived him of the affections of a corrupted people. He had disappointed the army of a promised reward; and, after a reign of eighty-six days, was murdered in the imperial palace by the same hands which had placed him on the throne, March 28, 192 A. C.

5. The empire was now put up to auction by the prætorians, and was purchased by the rich and profligate Didius Julianus; while Pescennius Niger in Asia, Clodius Albinus in Britain, and Septimius Severus in Illyria, were each chosen emperor by the armies they commanded. [Severus was the first who got possession of Rome, having marched his army from the neighbourhood of Vienna, a distance of eight hundred miles, in about forty days.* On his approach, Severus was acknowledged emperor by the senate, and Julian was formally deposed and put to death, after an anxious reign of sixty days. Before the new emperor entered Rome, he commanded the prætorian guards to wait his arrival on a large plain near the city, without arms, as they were accustomed to attend their sovereign. When they were encompassed by a chosen part of the Illyrian army; and another detachment was sent to seize their arms, and occupy their camp. Severus then sternly reproached them for their perfidy and cowardice, despoiled them of their splendid uniforms, and banished them, on pain of death, to the distance of an hundred miles from the capital. Severus, now master of Rome, after a stay of thirty days, departed] to reduce the provinces which had acknowledged the sovereignty of Niger and Albinus; and these two rivals being

* Gibbon remarks that the almost incredible expedition of Severus, who conducted a numerous army from the banks of the Danube to those of the Tiber in so short a space of time, is a proof of the abundance of provisions produced by agriculture and commerce, the goodness of the roads, and the discipline of the legions.

successively subdued, the one lost his life in battle near Ipus, in 194, and the other fell by his own hands, after having been defeated near Lyons, in 197. The administration of Severus was wise and equitable, but tinctured with despotic rigour. It was his purpose to erect the fabric of absolute monarchy, and all his institutions operated with able policy to that end. He possessed eminent military talents; and it was a glorious boast of his, that having received the empire oppressed with foreign and domestic wars, he left it in profound, universal, and honourable peace. He carried with him into Britain his two sons Caracalla and Geta, whose unpromising dispositions clouded his latter days. In this war the Caledonians, under Fingal, are said to have defeated, on the banks of the Carron, *Caracul* (Caracalla), the son of the king of the world. Severus died at York, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, after a reign of eighteen years, in 211 A. C.

6. On the death of Severus, Caracalla and Geta were proclaimed emperors of Rome, but the mutual hatred which had existed from their earliest youth, was increased by their association in the empire; and the former, with brutal inhumanity, caused his brother to be openly murdered in the arms of his mother Julia; and about 20,000 persons are computed to have perished under the vague appellation of Geta's friends. His reign, which was of six years' duration, and one continued series of atrocities, was at length terminated by assassination, in 217 A. C.

7. The prætorian præfect Macrinus, the murderer of Caracalla, was recognised as emperor by the soldiers, and acknowledged by the senate. Military despotism had now reached its greatest height: emperors were deposed and murdered by emperors; seditions arose on every side, and the incursions of the barbarians became more terrible as the means of resisting them became more feeble. The legions generally decided the succession to the empire; and the nomination of their leaders to the purple became the consequence not only of the uncertainty of succession, but often of an invincible necessity. This state of anarchy, which commenced with the death of Commodus, continued for about a century, till the accession of Diocletian. That interval was filled by the reigns of Mairinus, Heliogabalus, Alexander Severus, Maximin, Gordian, Decius, Gallus, Valerianus, Gallienus, Claudius, Aurelianus, Tacitus, Probus, and Carus; a period of which the annals furnish neither amusement nor useful information. The single exception is the reign of Alexander Severus, a mild, beneficent, and enlightened prince, whose character shines the more from the contrast of those who preceded and followed him.

8. [After the death of Carus, who was killed by lightning during his expedition against the Persians, and the murder of his son Numerianus by his own father-in-law, the prætorian præfect Aper, Diocletian was proclaimed emperor by the troops in Chalcedon, 284 A. C. The parents of Diocletian had been

slaves; and he derived his name from a small town in Dalmatia, from which his mother deduced her origin. He was successively promoted to the government of Mæsia, the honours of the consulship, and the important command of the guards of the palace. His abilities were useful rather than splendid; a vigorous mind, improved by the experience and study of mankind; steadiness to pursue his ends; flexibility to vary his means; and, above all, the art of submitting his passions, as well as those of others, to the interest of his ambition. His moderation was remarkable, after the defeat and death of Carinus, the remaining son of Carus; he spared the lives, the fortunes, and the dignities of his adversaries, and even continued in their respective stations the greater number of the servants of Carinus. Conscious of his inability to defend the empire against the incursions of the barbarians, who were now pressing on it, he associated with him in the government Maximian, a rough warrior, who had been his companion in arms, which provided for the defence both of the East and the West. Maximian shared with Diocletian the title of Augustus; and, a few years after, in 292, finding that the empire, assailed on every side by the barbarians, required on every side the presence of a great army and of an emperor, they determined to confer on two generals of approved merit an equal share of the sovereign authority. Each of them therefore created a Cæsar; Diocletian chose Galerius, and Maximian, Constantius. Diocletian retained the east; Maximian, Italy, Africa, and the Islands; Galerius, Thrace and Illyria; and Constantius, Gaul, Spain, and Britain. Each had his separate department or province, all nominally supreme, but in reality under the direction of the superior talents and authority of Diocletian; an unwise policy which depended for its efficacy on individual ability alone. Diocletian, trusting to the continuance of that order in the empire which his policy had established, determined to resign the cares of government, and induced Maximian to do the same, which they did on the same day, May 1, 305; the one at Nicomedia, and the other at Milan. The two Cæsars, Galerius and Constantius, were then proclaimed Augusti; the former having the seniority and presidency, had the nomination of the two Cæsars, Severus and Maximin. Constantius died soon after, at York (306), leaving his son Constantine heir to his authority, who was proclaimed Augustus by the legions, although Galerius would only acknowledge him as Cæsar, giving the higher title to Severus. The balance of power established by Diocletian subsisted no longer than while it was sustained by the firm and dexterous hand of the founder. "The abdication of Diocletian and Maximian was followed by eighteen years of discord and confusion. The empire was afflicted with five civil wars; and the remainder of the time was not so much *a state of tranquillity* as a suspension of arms between several *hostile monarchs* (there being at one time six emperors), who,

viewing each other with an eye of fear and hatred, strove to increase their respective forces at the expense of their subjects."—Gibbon.]

9. [On the death of Galerius in 311, there remained Constantine, Licinius, Maximin, and Maxentius. The latter was soon after defeated and slain before the gates of Rome by Constantine, who thereby became master of Italy and the capital, 312. About the same time a war broke out between Licinius and Maximin, when the latter was defeated near Adrianople, and then killed himself, 313. In the following year Constantine and Licinius were at war, which ended in an accommodation; Constantine obtaining all the countries on the south bank of the Danube, as well as Thrace and Mæsia Inferior. This arrangement continued till 322, when the war between them again broke out, and was finally terminated by the decisive battle of Chrysopolis (now Scutari), in Bithynia. Licinius afterwards surrendered to Constantine, and was put to death, 324.]

10. The administration of Constantine was, in the beginning of his reign, mild, equitable, and politic. Though zealously attached to the Christian faith, he made no violent innovations on the religion of the state. He introduced order and economy into the civil government, and repressed every species of oppression and corruption. But his natural temper was severe and cruel; and the latter part of his reign was as much deformed by intolerant zeal and sanguinary rigour, as the former had been remarkable for equity and benignity. From this unfavourable change of character, he lost the affections of his subjects: and, from a feeling probably of reciprocal disgust, he removed the seat of the Roman empire to Byzantium, now termed Constantinople. The court followed the sovereign; the opulent proprietors were attended by their slaves and retainers; Rome was in a few years greatly depopulated, and the new capital swelled at once to enormous magnitude. It was characterized by eastern splendour, luxury, and voluptuousness; and the cities of Greece were despoiled for its embellishment. Of the internal policy of the empire we shall treat in the next section. In an expedition against the Persians, Constantine died at Nicomedia, in the thirtieth year of his reign and sixty-third of his age, 337 A.C. In the time of Constantine, the Goths had made several irruptions on the empire, and, though repulsed and beaten, began gradually to encroach on the provinces.

SECTION LV.

STATE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT THE TIME OF
CONSTANTINE.—HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. [THE removal of the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople, and the establishment of Christianity as the religion of the state, was followed by important changes in the administration of government.] In lieu of the ancient republican distinctions, which were founded chiefly on personal merit, a rigid subordination of rank and office now went through all the orders of the state. The magistrates were divided into three classes, distinguished by the unmeaning titles of, 1. The Illustrious; 2. The Respectable; 3. The Honourable.—The epithet of Illustrious was bestowed on, 1. The consuls and patricians; 2. The prætorian prefects, with those of Rome and Constantinople; 3. The masters-general of the cavalry and infantry; 4. The seven ministers of the palace, who exercised their functions about the person of the emperor. From the reign of Diocletian, the consuls had been created by the sole authority of the emperor: their dignity was inefficient; they had no appropriate function in the state, and their names served only to give the legal date to the year. The dignity of patrician* was not, as in ancient times, an hereditary distinction, but was bestowed as a title of honour by the emperor on his favourites. From the time of the abolition of the prætorian bands by Constantine, the prætorian prefects had been deprived of all military command, and reduced to the station of useful and obedient ministers. They were four in number, and to their care was intrusted the civil administration of the four præfectures, or departments into which the whole empire was divided. These were, the East, Illyria, Italy, and the Gauls, each of which having its dioceses, and each diocese its provinces. The prefects had the supreme administration of justice and of the finances, the power of supplying all the inferior magistracies in their district, and an appellate jurisdiction from all its tribunals. Independent of their authority, Rome and Constantinople had each its own prefect, who presided over the senate, and was the chief magistrate of the city; he received appeals from the distance of 100 miles from his respective city, and was the acknowledged source of all municipal authority. In the second class, the Respectable, were the proconsuls of Asia, Achaia, and Africa, and the military counts and dukes (*comites* and *duces*) or generals of the imperial armies. The third class, the Honourable, comprehended the

* By this time very few of the ancient patrician families remained, or even of those created by Cæsar and the succeeding emperors.

inferior governors and magistrates of the provinces, responsible to the prefects and their deputies.*

2. The intercourse between the court and provinces was maintained by the construction of roads and the institution of regular posts or couriers; under which denomination were ranked the numberless spies of government, whose duty was to convey all sort of intelligence from the remotest quarters of the empire to its chief seat. Every institution was calculated to support the fabric of despotism. Torture was employed for the discovery of crimes. Taxes and impositions of every nature were prescribed and levied by the sole authority of the emperor. The quantity and rate were annually fixed on the *census* [of the population and the valuation of property, made over all the provinces every fifteen years, called the *cycle of indictions*, which commenced September 1, 312.] Part was generally paid in money, part in the produce of the lands—a burden frequently found so grievous as to prompt to the neglect of agriculture, [as the produce was required to be transported at the expense of the provincials to the imperial magazines. Trade and commerce were subject to an impost called the *aurum lustrale*, which was levied on almost every kind of moveable property, and collected every fourth year.] Subsidies, moreover, were exacted from all the cities, under the name of free gifts, on various occasions of public concern; as the accession of an emperor, his consulate, the birth of a prince, a victory over the barbarians, or any other event of similar importance.

3. [In the military system of the empire great alterations were made. At the head of the troops were the *magistri peditum* (masters of the infantry), and the *magistri equitum* (masters of the horse), under the *magister utriusque militiæ* (general in chief of the whole army). Their subordinate commanders were called *comites* (counts), and *duces* (dukes). The most impolitic alterations were the employment of hordes of barbarians, under their own chiefs, and retaining their national arms and discipline]; and the distinction which was made between the legionary troops stationed in the distant provinces and those in the heart of the empire. The latter, termed *Palatines*, enjoyed a higher pay and more peculiar favour, and, having less employment, spent their time in idleness and luxury; while the former,

† The four prefectures into which the empire was divided were:—I. The Eastern (*Prefectura Orientis*); it contained five dioceses—1, *Orientis*; 2, *Egypt*; 3, *Asia*; 4, *Pont*; 5, *Thrace*; forming altogether forty-eight provinces, and comprising all the countries of Asia and Egypt, together with the frontier countries of Lybia and Thrace. II. *Prefectura Illyrici*, containing two dioceses—1, *Macedonia*; 2, *Dacia*; forming eleven provinces, and comprising Moesia, Macedon, Greece, and Crete. III. *Prefectura Italiæ*, containing three dioceses—1, *Italiæ*; 2, *Illyrici*; 3, *Africa*; forming twenty-nine provinces, and comprising Italy, the countries on the south of the Danube, as far as the boundaries of Moesia; the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica; and the African provinces of the Syrtis. IV. *Prefectura Galliarum*, containing three dioceses—1, *Galliæ*; 2, *Hispaniæ*; 3, *Britanniæ*; forming altogether twenty-eight provinces, and comprising Spain and the Balearic islands, France, Switzerland, Germany, and Britain.

termed the *Borderers*, who, in fact, had the care of the empire, and were exposed to perpetual hard service, had, with an inferior reward, the mortification of feeling themselves regarded as of meaner rank than their fellow-soldiers. Constantine likewise, from a timid policy of guarding against mutinies of the troops, reduced the legion from its ancient complement of 5,000, 6,000, 7,000, and 8,000, to 1,000 or 1,500, and debased the body of the army by the intermixture of Scythians, Goths, and Germans.

4. This immense mass of heterogeneous parts, which internally laboured with the seeds of dissolution and corruption, was kept together for some time by the vigorous exertion of despotic authority. The fabric was splendid and august; but it wanted both that energy of constitution and that real dignity which, in former times, it derived from the exercise of heroic and patriotic virtues.

5. Constantine, with a destructive policy, had divided the empire between his three sons Constantine, Constans, and Constantius; and these were so eager after territory, which neither of them were qualified to govern, that a series of wars followed for the twelve years succeeding the death of their father, till at last Constantius was left master of the whole; and, by the murder of most of his relations, secured the empire to himself, which he ruled with a weak and impotent sceptre. A variety of domestic broils, and mutinies of the troops against their generals, had left the western frontier to the mercy of the barbarian nations. The Franks, Saxons, Alemanni, and Sarmatians, laid waste all the fine countries watered by the Rhine; and the Persians made dreadful incursions on the provinces of the East. Constantius indolently wasted his time in theological controversies, but was prevailed on by his empress Eusebia to adopt one prudent measure, the appointment of his cousin Julian to the dignity of Cæsar, 355.

6. Julian possessed many heroic qualities, and his mind was formed by nature for the sovereignty of a great people; but educated at Athens in the schools of the Platonic philosophy, he had unfortunately conceived a rooted antipathy to the doctrines of Christianity. With every talent of a general, and possessing the confidence and affection of his troops, he once more restored the glory of the Roman arms, and successfully repressed the invasions of the barbarians. His victories excited the jealousy of Constantius, who meanly resolved gradually to remove from his command the better part of his troops. Suspecting this design, the army declared that it was their choice that Julian should be their emperor. Preparations for civil war were made on both sides, but Constantius escaped the ignominy that awaited him by dying at this critical juncture, and Julian was immediately acknowledged sovereign of the Roman empire. Constantius died after a short illness, at Mopsucrene, twelve miles beyond

Tarsus, in Cilicia, in the forty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign, 361 A. C.

7. Julian (the apostate,) was the last and most highly gifted prince of the house of Constantine. The reformation of civil abuses formed the first object of his attention; which he next turned to the reformation, as he thought, of religion, by the suppression of Christianity. He began by reforming the Pagan theology, and sought to raise the character of its priests by inculcating purity of life and sanctity of morals; thus bearing involuntary testimony to the superior excellence, in those respects, of that religion which he laboured to abolish. Without persecuting, Julian attacked the Christians by the more dangerous policy of treating them with contempt, and removing them, as visionaries, from all employments of public trust. He refused them the benefit of the laws to decide their differences, because their religion forbade all dissension; and they were debarred the studies of literature and philosophy, which they could not learn but from pagan authors. He was himself a Pagan, the slave of the most bigoted superstition, believing in omens and auguries, and fancying himself favoured with an actual intercourse with the gods and goddesses. To avenge the injuries which the empire had sustained from the Persians, Julian marched into the heart of Asia, and was for some time in the train of conquest, when, in a fatal engagement, though crowned with victory, he was slain, June 25, 363, at the age of thirty-one, after a reign of three years.

8. The Roman army was dispirited by the death of its commander. They chose for their emperor, Jovian, a captain of the domestic guards, and purchased a free retreat from the dominions of Persia by the ignominious surrender of five provinces, which had been ceded by a former sovereign to Galerius. The short reign of Jovian, a period of seven months, was mild and equitable. He favoured Christianity, and restored its votaries to all their privileges as subjects. He died suddenly; at the age of thirty-three, February 24, 364.

9. Valentinian was chosen emperor by the army on the death of Jovian; a man of obscure birth and severe manners, but of considerable military talents. He almost immediately associated with himself in the empire his brother Valens, to whom he gave the dominion of the eastern provinces (*the Præfectura Orientis*,) reserving the rest for himself. The Persians, under Sapor, were making inroads on the former, and the latter was subject to continual invasion from the northern barbarians, (the Franks, the Saxons, and the Alemanni on the Rhine.) They were successfully repelled by Valentinian in many battles; and his domestic administration was wise, equitable, and politic. The Christian religion was favoured by the emperor, though not promoted by the persecution of its adversaries; a contrast to the conduct of his brother Valens, who, intemperately supporting the Arian

heresy, set the whole provinces in a flame, and drew a swarm of invaders upon the empire in the guise of friends and allies, who in the end entirely subverted it. These were the Goths, who, migrating from Scandinavia, had, in the second century, settled on the banks of the Palus Mæotis (Sea of Asoph), and thence gradually extended their territory. In the reign of Valens they took possession of Dacia, and were known by the distinct appellation of Ostrogoths, Visigoths, or Eastern and Western Goths; a remarkable people; whose manners, customs, government, and laws, are afterwards to be particularly noted.

10. Valentinian died of apoplexy, on an expedition against the Alemanni, at Guntz in Hungary, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, after having reigned nearly twelve years, 375 A.C. He was succeeded in the empire of the West by Gratian, his eldest son, a boy of sixteen years of age, who was required by the two principal commanders of the army to associate his brother Valentinian II., a child of four years old, with himself in the empire, that they might govern in his name. Valens, in the East, was the scourge of his people. The Huns, a new race of barbarians, of Tartar or Siberian origin,* now poured down on the provinces both of the west and east. The Goths, comparatively a civilized people, fled before them. The Visigoths, who were first attacked, requested protection from the empire, and Valens imprudently gave them a settlement in Thrace. The Ostrogoths made the same request, and, on refusal, forced their way into the same province. Valens gave them battle at Adrianople: his army was defeated, and he himself slain, together with two-thirds of his army, 378 A.C. The Goths, unresisted, ravaged Achaia and Pannonia.

11. Gratian, a prince of good dispositions, but of little energy of character, raised Theodosius, (a Spaniard, who had distinguished himself as a warrior, to the purple, and gave him the *Præfectura Orientis et Illyrici*,) who, on the early death of Gratian (383), and minority of his brother Valentinian II., governed with great ability both the Eastern and Western empire. The character of Theodosius, deservedly surnamed *the Great*, was worthy of the best ages of the Roman state. He successfully repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and secured by wholesome laws the prosperity of his people. He died after a reign of eighteen years, assigning to his sons, Arcadius and Honorius, the separate sovereignties of the East and West, 395 A.C.

* The Huns are supposed to have been a nomad people who inhabited the extensive regions between Siberia, India, and China, and to have been driven from their ancient pastures by the Sieupi. They crossed the Wolga and Don in 374, and founded an extensive empire between the Theiss and the Don, driving before them the Goths and Alans.

SECTION LVI.

PROGRESS OF THE CHRISTIAN RELIGION, FROM ITS INSTITUTION TO THE EXTINCTION OF PAGANISM IN THE REIGN OF THEODOSIUS.

1. THE reign of Theodosius was signalized by the downfall of the Pagan superstition, and the full establishment of the Christian religion in the Roman empire. This great revolution of opinions is highly worthy of attention, and naturally induces a retrospect to the condition of the Christian church, from its institution down to this period.

It has been frequently remarked, because it is an obvious truth, that the concurrence of circumstances at the time of our Saviour's birth was such as, while a divine revelation seemed to be then more peculiarly needed, the state of the world was remarkably favourable for the extensive dissemination of the doctrines it conveyed. The union of so many nations under one power, and the extension of civilization, were favourable to the progress of a religion which prescribed universal charity and benevolence. The gross superstitions of Paganism, and its tendency to corrupt instead of purifying the morals, contributed to explode its influence with every thinking mind. Even the prevalent philosophy of the times, Epicurism, more easily understood than the refinements of the Platonists, and more grateful than the severities of the Stoics, tended to degrade human nature to the level of the brute creation. The Christian religion, thus necessary for the reformation of the world, found its chief partisans in those who were the friends of virtue, and its enemies among the votaries of vice.

2. The persecution which the Christians underwent from the Romans has been deemed an exception to that spirit of toleration they showed to the religions of other nations: but they were tolerating only to those whose theologies were not hostile to their own. The religion of the Romans was interwoven with their political constitution. The zeal of the Christians, aiming at the suppression of all idolatry, was not unnaturally regarded as dangerous to the state; and hence they were the object of hatred and persecution. In the first century, the Christian church suffered deeply under Nero and Domitian; yet those persecutions had no tendency to check the progress of its doctrines.

3. It is a matter of question what was the form of the primitive church and nature of its government; and on this head much difference of opinion obtains, not only between the Catholics and Protestants, but between the different classes of the latter, as the Lutherans and Calvinists. It is moreover an opinion, that our Saviour and his apostles, confining their precepts to the pure doctrines of religion, have left all Christian societies to regulate their frame and government in the manner

best suited to the civil constitutions of the countries in which they are established.

4. In the second century, the books of the New Testament were collected into a volume by the elder fathers of the church, and received as a canon of faith. The Old Testament had been translated from the Hebrew into Greek, by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, 284 years before Christ. The early church suffered much from an absurd endeavour of the more learned of its votaries to reconcile its doctrines to the tenets of the Pagan philosophers; hence the sects of the Gnostics and Ammonians, and the Platonizing Christians. The Greek churches began in the second century to form provincial associations, and establish general rules of government and discipline. Assemblies were held, termed *Synodoi* and *Concilia*, over which a metropolitan presided. A short time after arose the superior order of Patriarch, presiding over a large district of the Christian world; and a subordination taking place even among these, the Bishop of Rome was acknowledged the chief of the Patriarchs. Persecution still attended the early church, even under those excellent princes, Trajan, Adrian, and the Antonines; and in the reign of Severus, the whole provinces of the empire were stained with the blood of the martyrs.

5. The third century was more favourable to the progress of Christianity and the tranquillity of its disciples. In those times it suffered less from the civil arm than from the pens of the Pagan philosophers, Porphyry, Philostratus, &c.; but these attacks called forth the zeal and talents of many able defenders, as Origen, Dionysius, and Cyprian. A part of the Gauls, Germany, and Britain, received in this century the light of the gospel.

6. In the fourth century, the Christian church was alternately persecuted and cherished by the Roman emperors. Among its oppressors we rank Diocletian, Galerius, and Julian. Among its favourers, Constantine and his sons, Valentinian, Valens, Gratian, and the excellent Theodosius, in whose reign the Pagan superstition came to its final period.

7. From the age of Numa to the reign of Gratian, the Romans preserved the regular succession of the several sacerdotal colleges, the Pontiffs, Augurs, Vestals, *Flamines*, *Salii*, &c., whose authority, though weakened in the latter ages, was still protected by the laws. Even the Christian emperors held, like their Pagan predecessors, the office of *Pontifex Maximus*. Gratian was the first who refused that ancient dignity, as a profanation. In the time of Theodosius, the cause of Christianity and of Paganism was solemnly debated in the Roman senate between Ambrose, archbishop of Milan, the champion of the former, and Symmachus, a senator and celebrated orator, the defender of the latter. The cause of Christianity was triumphant; and the senate issued its decree for the abolition of Paganism, whose downfall in the capital

was soon followed by its extinction in the provinces. Theodosius, with able policy, permitted no persecution of the ancient religion, which perished with the more rapidity that its fall was gentle and unresisted.

8. But the Christian church exhibited a superstition in some respects little less irrational than Polytheism, in the worship of saints and relics; and many novel tenets, unfounded in the precepts of our Saviour and his apostles, were manifestly borrowed from the Pagan schools. The doctrines of the Platonic philosophy seem to have led to the notions of an intermeditate state of purification, celibacy of the priests, ascetic mortifications, penances, and monastic seclusion.

SECTION LVII.

EXTINCTION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE WEST.

1. ["THE genius of Rome expired with Theodosius; the last of the successors of Augustus and Constantine who appeared in the field of battle at the head of their armies, and whose authority was universally acknowledged throughout the whole extent of the empire. The memory of his virtues still continued, however, to protect the feeble and inexperienced youth of his two sons. After the death of their father, Arcadius and Honorius were saluted emperors of the east and west; and the oath of fidelity was eagerly taken by every order of the state; the senators of old and new Rome, the clergy, the magistrates, the soldiers, and the people," (Gibbon). The Eastern empire, comprising the *Præfectura Orientis et Illyrici*, was allotted to Arcadius, then in his eighteenth year, under the guardianship of Rufinus the Gaul; and the *Præfectura Galliarum et Italiae* to Honorius, aged eleven, under the guardianship of the Vandal Stilicho. The intrigues of the latter to procure himself the government of the whole empire, opened a way for the Goths into the interior, just at the time they were doubly formidable in possessing a leader of uncommon ability]. The Huns, on the other hand, were invited by Rufinus, and overspread Armenia, Cappadocia, and Syria. The Goths, under Alaric, ravaged to the borders of Italy, and laid waste Achaia to the Peloponnesus. Stilicho, an able general, made a noble stand against these invaders; but his plans were frustrated by the machinations of his rivals and the weakness of Arcadius, who purchased an ignominious peace, by ceding to Alaric the whole of Greece.

2. Alaric, now styled king of the Visigoths, prepared to add Italy to his new dominions. He passed the Alps, and was carrying all before him, when, amused by the politic Stilicho with the prospect of a new cession of territory, he was taken at unawares,

and defeated by that general, then commanding the armies of Honorius. The emperor triumphantly celebrated, on that occasion, the *eternal* defeat of the Gothic nation; an eternity bounded by the lapse of a few months. In this interval, a torrent of the Goths breaking down upon Germany, forced the nations whom they dispossessed, the Suevi, Alani, and Vandals, to precipitate themselves upon Italy. They joined their arms to those of Alaric, who, thus reinforced, determined to overwhelm Rome. The policy of Stilicho made him change his purpose, on the promise of 4000 pounds weight of gold; a promise repeatedly broken by Honorius, and its violation finally revenged by Alaric by the sack and plunder of the city, 410. With generous magnanimity, he was sparing of the lives of the vanquished, and, with singular liberality of spirit, anxious to preserve every ancient edifice from destruction.

3. Alaric, preparing now for the conquest of Sicily and Africa, died at this era of his highest glory; and Honorius, instead of profiting by this event to recover his lost provinces, made a treaty with his successor and brother-in-law Ataulfus, gave him in marriage his sister Placidia, and secured his friendship by ceding to him a portion of Spain, while a great part of what remained had before been occupied by the Vandals. [Ataulfus, or Adolphus, became the founder of the empire of the Visigoths in 415]; and Honorius, about the same time, allowed to Gondicor and his Burgundians a just title to their conquests in Gaul. Thus the Western empire was by degrees mouldering from under the dominion of its ancient masters.

4. In the East, the mean and dissolute Arcadius died in the year 408, leaving that empire to his infant son, Theodosius II., whose sister Pulcheria swayed the sceptre with much prudence and ability; and the weakness of her brother allowed her government to be of forty years' continuance. Honorius died in the year 423 [when his nephew, Valentinian III., aged six years, was raised to the throne under the guardianship of his mother Placidia]. The laws of Arcadius and Honorius are, with a few exceptions, remarkable for their wisdom and equity; a singular phenomenon, considering the personal character of those princes, and evincing at least that they employed some able ministers.

5. [In Africa, the governor Boniface having been driven into rebellion by the intrigues of the Roman general Ætius, invited the Vandals from Spain, under the command of Genseric, to his assistance, 429. The latter then obtained possession of the country, and a formal cession of it from Valentinian III. in 435]. The Huns, in the East, extended their conquests from the borders of China to the Baltic Sea. Under Attila they laid waste Mœsia and Thrace; and Theodosius II., after a mean attempt to murder the barbarian general, ingloriously submitted to pay him an annual tribute. It was in this crisis of universal decay, that the Britons implored the Romans to defend them

against the Picts and Scots, but received for answer, that they had nothing to bestow on them but compassion. The Britons, in despair, sought aid from the Saxons and Angles, who seized, as their property, the country they were invited to protect, and founded, in the fifth and sixth centuries, the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy. (See Part II. Sect. XIII. § 5.)

6. Attila, with an army of 500,000 men, threatened the total destruction of the empire. He was ably opposed by Ætius, general of Valentinian III., now emperor of the West, who was himself shut up in Rome by the arms of the barbarian, and at length compelled to purchase a peace. On the death of Attila, his dominions were dismembered by his sons, whose dissensions gave temporary relief to the falling empire.

7. From the assassination of Valentinian III., in 455, to the extinction of the imperial dignity in the West, ten emperors, or rather names, rapidly succeeded; for the events of their reigns merit no detail. In the reign of Romulus Momyllus, who, as the last in the succession of the Augusti, acquired the surname of Augustulus, the empire of the West came to a final period. Odoacer, prince of the Heruli, subdued Italy, and spared the life of Augustulus, on the condition of his resigning the throne, 476 A. C. From the building of Rome to this era, the extinction of the Western empire, is a period of 1224 years.

8. We may reduce to one ultimate cause the various circumstances that produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric. The ruin of the Roman empire was the inevitable consequence of its greatness. The extension of its dominion relaxed the vigour of its frame: the vices of the conquered nations infected the victorious legions, and foreign luxuries corrupted their commanders; selfish interest supplanted the patriotic affection; the martial spirit was purposely debased by the emperors, who dreaded its effects on their own power; and the whole mass, thus weakened and enervated, fell an easy prey to the torrent of barbarians which overwhelmed it.

9. The Herulian dominion in Italy was of short duration. Theodoric, prince of the Ostrogoths (afterwards deservedly surnamed *the Great*,) obtained permission of Zeno, emperor of the East, to attempt the recovery of Italy, and a promise of its sovereignty as the reward of his success. The whole nation of the Ostrogoths attended the standard of their prince; and Theodoric, victorious in repeated engagements, at length compelled Odoacer to surrender all Italy to the conqueror, 493. The Romans had tasted of happiness under the government of Odoacer, and it was increased under the dominion of Theodoric, who possessed every talent and virtue of a sovereign. His equity and clemency rendered him a blessing to his subjects: he allied himself with all the surrounding nations, the Franks, Visigoths, Burgundians, and Vandals; and he left a peaceable sceptre (in 526) to his grandson Athalaric, during whose infancy his mother Amalasun-

tha governed with such admirable wisdom and moderation, as left her subjects no real cause of regret for the loss of her father.

10. While such was the state of Gothic Italy, the empire of the East was under the government of Justinian, a prince of mean ability, vain, capricious, and tyrannical. Yet the Roman name rose for a while from its abasement by the merit of his generals. Belisarius was the support of his throne, yet to him he behaved with the most shocking ingratitude. The Persians were at this time the most formidable enemies of the empire, under their sovereigns Cabades and Cosroes; and from the latter, a most able prince, Justinian meanly purchased a peace, by a cession of territory and an enormous tribute in gold. The civil factions of Constantinople, arising from the most contemptible of causes, the disputes of the performers in the circus and amphitheatre, threatened to hurl Justinian from the throne, had they not been fortunately composed by the arms and the policy of Belisarius. This great general overwhelmed the Vandal sovereignty of Africa, and recovered that province to the empire. He wrested Italy from its Gothic sovereign, and once more restored it for a short space to the dominion of its ancient masters.

11. Italy was once more subdued by the Goths, under the heroic Totila, who besieged and took the city of Rome, but forbore to destroy it at the request of Belisarius. The fortunes of this great man were now in the wane. He was compelled to evacuate Italy; and, on his return to Constantinople, his long services were repaid with disgrace. He was superseded in the command of the armies by the eunuch Narses, who defeated Totila in a decisive engagement, in which the Gothic prince was slain. Narses governed Italy with great ability for thirteen years, when he was ungratefully recalled by Justin II., the successor of Justinian. He invited the Lombards to avenge his injuries; and this new tribe of invaders overran and conquered the country in 568 A.C.

SECTION LVIII.

OF THE ORIGIN, MANNERS, AND CHARACTER OF THE GOTHIC NATIONS, BEFORE THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. THE history and manners of the Gothic nations are curious objects of inquiry, from their influence on the constitutions and national character of most of the modern kingdoms of Europe. As the present inhabitants of these kingdoms are a mixed race, compounded of the Goths and of the nations whom they subdued, the laws, manners, and institutions of the modern kingdoms are the result of this conjunction; and in so far as these

are different from the usages prevalent before this intermixture, they are, in all probability, to be traced from the ancient manners and institutions of those northern tribes. We purpose to consider, 1, The original character of the Gothic nations; and, 2, The change of their manners on their establishment in the Roman empire.

2. The Scandinavian chronicles attribute to the ancient inhabitants of that country an Asiatic origin, and inform us that the Goths were a colony of Scythians, who migrated thither from the banks of the Black Sea and the Caspian: but these chronicles do not fix the period of this migration, which some later writers suppose to have been 1000 years, and others only seventy, before the Christian era. Odin, the chief deity of the Scandinavians, was the god of the Scythians. Sigga, a Scythian prince, is said to have undertaken a distant expedition; and, after subduing several of the Sarmatian tribes, to have penetrated into the northern parts of Germany, and thence into Scandinavia. He assumed the honours of divinity, and the title of Odin, his national God. He conquered Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, and gave wise and salutary laws to the nations he had subdued by his arms.

3. The agreement in manners between the Scythians and the ancient Scandinavian nations is strongly corroborative of the accounts given in the northern chronicles of the identity of their origin. The description of the manners of the Germans by Tacitus (though this people was probably not of Scythian, but of Celtic origin) may, in many particulars, be applied to the ancient nations of Scandinavia; and the same description coincides remarkably with the account given by Herodotus of the manners of the Scythians. Their life was spent in hunting, pasturage, and predatory war. Their dress, their weapons, their food, their respect for their women, their religious worship, were the same. They despised learning, and had no other records for many ages than the songs of their bards.

4. The theology of the Scandinavians was most intimately connected with their manners. They held three great principles or fundamental doctrines of religion: "To serve the Supreme Being with prayer and sacrifice; to do no wrong or unjust action; and to be intrepid in fight." These principles are the key to the *Edda*, or sacred book, of the Scandinavians, which, though it contains the substance of a very ancient religion, is not itself a work of very high antiquity, being compiled in the thirteenth century by Snorro Sturleson, supreme judge of Iceland. Odin, characterized as the Terrible and Severe God, the Father of Carnage, the Avenger, is the principal deity of the Scandinavians; from whose union with Frea, the heavenly mother, sprung various subordinate divinities, as Thor, who perpetually wars against Loke and his evil giants, who envy the power of Odin, and seek to destroy his works. Among the

inferior deities are the Virgins of the Valhalla, whose office is to minister to the heroes in paradise. The favourites of Odin are all who die in battle, or, what is equally meritorius, by their own hand. The timid wretch who allows himself to perish by disease or age, is unworthy of the joys of paradise. These joys are, fighting, ceaseless slaughter, and drinking beer out of the skulls of their enemies, with a renovation of life, to furnish a perpetuity of the same pleasures.

5. As the Scandinavians believed this world to be the work of some superior intelligences, so they held all nature to be constantly under the regulation of an almighty will and power, and subject to a fixed and unalterable destiny. These notions had a wonderful effect on the national manners, and on the conduct of individuals. The Scandinavian placed his sole delight in war: he entertained an absolute contempt of danger and of death, and his glory was estimated by the number he had slain in battle. The death-song of *Regner Lodbrok*, who comforts himself in his last agonies by recounting all the acts of carnage he had committed in his life-time, is a faithful picture of the Scandinavian character.

6. We have remarked the great similarity of the manners of the Scandinavians and those of the ancient Germans. These nations seem, however, to have had a different origin. The Germans, as well as the Gauls, were branches of that great original nation termed *Celtæ*, who inhabited most of the countries of Europe to the south of the Baltic, before they were invaded by the northern tribes from Scandinavia. The *Celtæ* were all of the Druidical religion; a system which, though different from the belief and worship of the Scandinavians, is founded nearly on the same principles; and the Goths, in their progress, intermixing with the Germans, could not fail to adopt, in part, the notions of a kindred religion. Druidism acknowledged a god that delighted in bloodshed; it taught the immortality of the soul, and inculcated the contempt of danger and of death: "*Ignavum redituræ parcere vitæ.*" Tacitus remarks of the ancient Germans, that they had neither temples nor idols. The open air was the temple of the divinity, and a consecrated grove the appropriated place for prayer and sacrifice, which none but the priests were allowed to enter. The chief sacrifices were human victims, most probably the prisoners taken in war. The Druids heightened the sanctity of their character by concealing the mysteries of their worship. They had the highest influence over the minds of the people, and thus found it easy to conjoin a civil authority with the sacerdotal; a policy which in the end led to the destruction of the Druidical system; for the Romans found no other way of securing their conquests over any of the Celtic nations than by exterminating the Druids.

7. Whatever difference of manners there may have been among the various nations or tribes of Gothic origin, the great

features of their character appear to have been the same. Nature, education, and prevailing habits, all concurred to form them for an intrepid and conquering people. Their bodily frame invigorated by the climate they inhabited, ever inured to danger and fatigue, war their habitual occupation, believing in an unalterable destiny, and taught by their religion that a heroic sacrifice of life gave certain assurance of eternal happiness—how could a race of men so characterized fail to be the conquerors of the world?

SECTION LIX.

OF THE MANNERS, LAWS, AND GOVERNMENT OF THE GOTHIC NATIONS, AFTER THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. It has been erroneously imagined, that the same ferocity of manners which distinguished the Goths in their original seats, attended their successors in their new establishments in the provinces of the Roman empire. Modern authors have given a currency to this false idea. Voltaire, in describing the middle ages, paints the Goths in all the characters of horror; as “a troop of hungry wolves, foxes, and tigers, driving before them the scattered timid herds, and involving all in ruin and desolation.” The accounts of historians most worthy of credit will dissipate this injurious prejudice, and show these northern nations in a more favourable point of view, as not unworthy to be the successors of the Romans.

2. Before the settlement in the southern provinces of Europe, the Goths were no longer idolators, but Christians; and their morality was suitable to the religion they professed. Salvianus, bishop of Marseilles, in the fifth century, draws a parallel between their manners and those of the Romans, highly to the credit of the former. Grotius, in his publication of Procopius and Jornandes, remarks, as a strong testimony to their honourable character as a nation, that no province once subdued by the Goths ever voluntarily withdrew itself from their government.

3. It is not possible to produce a more beautiful picture of an excellent administration than that of the Gothic monarchy in Italy under Theodoric the Great. Although master of the country by conquest, he was regarded by his subjects with the affection of a native sovereign. He retained the Roman laws, and as nearly as possible the ancient political regulations. In supplying all civil offices of state, he preferred the native Romans. It was his care to preserve every monument of the ancient grandeur of the empire, and to embellish the cities by new works of beauty and utility. In the imposition and levying of taxes,

he showed the most humane indulgence, on every occasion of scarcity or calamity. His laws were dictated by the most enlightened prudence and benevolence, and framed on that principle which he nobly inculcated in his instructions to the Roman senate, "*Benigne principis est, non tam delicta velle punire, quam tollere.*" The historians of the times delight in recounting the examples of his munificence and humanity. Partial as he was to the Arian heresy, many even of the Catholic fathers have done the most ample justice to his merits, acknowledging that under his reign the church enjoyed a high measure of prosperity. Such was Theodoric the Great, who was justly termed by Sidonius Apollinaris, "*Romanæ decus columnæ gentis.*"

4. But a single example could not warrant a general inference with regard to the merits of a whole people. The example of Theodoric is not single. If it does not find a complete parallel, it is at least nearly approached to, in the similar characters of Alaric, Amalasuntha, and Totila. Alaric, compelled by his enemy's breach of faith to revenge himself by the sack of Rome, showed even in that revenge a noble example of humanity. No blood was shed without necessity; the churches were inviolable asylums; the honour of the women was preserved; the treasures of the city were saved from plunder. Amalasuntha, the daughter of Theodoric, repaired to her subjects the loss of her father, by the equity and wisdom of her administration. She trained her son to the study of literature and of every polite accomplishment, as the best means of reforming and enlightening his people. Totila, twice master of Rome, which he won by his arms after an obstinate resistance, imitated the example of Alaric in his clemency to the vanquished, and in his care to preserve every remnant of ancient magnificence from destruction. He restored the senate to its authority; he adorned Rome with useful edifices, regulated its internal policy, and took a noble pride in reviving the splendour and dignity of the empire. "*Habitavit cum Romanis,*" says a contemporary author, "*tanquam pater cum filiis.*"

5. The stem of the Gothic nation divided itself into two great branches, the Ostrogoths, who remained in Pannonia, and the Westrogoths or Visigoths, so termed from their migrating thence to the west of Europe. Italy was possessed by the latter under Alaric, and by the former under Theodoric. The Visigoths, after the death of Alaric, withdrew into Gaul, and obtained from Honorius the province of Aquitaine, of which Thoulouse was the capital. When expelled from that province by the Franks, they crossed the Pyrenees, and, settling in Spain, made Toledo the capital of their kingdom. The race of the Visigoth princes was termed the *Balti*, as that of the Ostrogoths, the *Amali*. The Ostrogoths enforced in their dominions the observance of the *Roman laws*; the Visigoths adhered to a code compiled by their *own sovereigns*, and founded on the ancient manners and usages

of their nations. From this code, therefore, we may derive much information relative to the genius and character of this ancient people.

6. It is enacted by the *Laws of the Visigoths*, that no judge should decide in any law-suit, unless he finds in that book a law applicable to the case. All causes that fall not under this description are reserved for the decision of the sovereign. The penal laws are severe, but tempered with great equity. No punishment can affect the heirs of the criminal: "*omnia crimina suos sequantur auctores—ille solus judicetur culpabilis qui culpanda commiserit, et crimen cum illo qui fecerit moriatur.*" Death was the punishment of the murder of a freeman, and perpetual infamy of the murder of a slave.—Pecuniary fines were enacted for various subordinate offences, according to their measure of criminality.—An adulterer was delivered in bondage to the injured husband; and the free woman who had committed adultery with a married man became the slave of his wife.—No physician was allowed to visit a female patient but in the presence of her nearest kindred.—The *Lex talionis* was in great observance for such injuries as admitted of it. It was even carried so far, that the incendiary of a house was burned alive.—The trials by judicial combat, by ordeal, and by the judgment of God, which were in frequent use among the Franks and Normans, had no place among the Visigoths.—Montesquieu has erroneously asserted, that in all the Gothic nations it was usual to judge the litigants by the law of their own country; the Roman by the Roman law, the Frank by that of the Franks, the Aleman by that of the Alemans. On the contrary, the Visigoth code prohibits the laws of all other nations within the territories of that people: "*Nolumus sive Romanis legibus, sive alienis institutionibus, amplius convexari.*" The laws of the Franks and Lombards are remarkable for their wisdom and judicious policy.

7. The government of the Goths, after their settlement in the Roman provinces, was monarchical; and at first elective, became afterwards hereditary; the sovereign on his death-bed appointing his successors, with the advice or consent of his grandees. Illegitimacy did not disqualify from succession or nomination to the throne.

8. The dukes and counts were the chief officers under the Gothic government. The duke (*dux exercitus*) was the commander-in-chief of the troops of the province; the count (*comes*) was the highest civil magistrate; but these officers frequently intermixed their functions; the count being impowered, on sudden emergencies, to assume a military command, and the duke, on some occasions, warranted to exercise judicial authority. In general, however, their departments were distinct. Of *comites* there were various orders, with distinct official powers; as, *comes cubiculi*, chamberlain; *comes stabuli*, constable, &c. These various officers were the *procures* or grandees of the kingdom; by

whose advice the sovereign conducted himself in important matters of government, or in the nomination of his successor: but we do not find that they had a voice in the framing of laws, or in the imposition of taxes; and the prince himself had the sole nomination to all offices of government, magistracies, and dignities.

SECTION LX.

METHOD OF STUDYING ANCIENT HISTORY.

1. A general and concise view of ancient history may be acquired by the perusal of a very few books; as that part of the *Cours d'Etude* of the Abbé Condillac which regards the history of the nations of antiquity; the *Elements of General History* by the Abbé Millot, Part I.; the *Epitome of Turselline*, with the *Notes of L'Agneau*, Part I.; or the excellent *Compendium Historiæ Universalis*, by Professor Offerhaus of Groningen. The two first of these works have the merit of uniting a spirit of reflection with a judicious selection of events. The notes of L'Agneau to the *Epitome of Turselline* contain a great store of geographical and biographical information; and the work of Offerhaus is peculiarly valuable, as uniting sacred with profane history, and containing most ample references to the ancient authors. The *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle* by the Bishop of Meaux, though a work of high merit, is rather useful to those who have already studied history in detail, for uniting in the mind the great current of events, and recalling to the memory their order and connection, than fitted to convey information to the uninstructed.

But the student who wishes to derive the most complete advantage from history, must not confine himself to such general or compendious views; he must resort to the original historians of ancient times, and the modern writers who have treated with amplitude of particular periods. It may be useful to such students to point out the order in which these historians may be most profitably perused.

2. Next to the historical books of the Old Testament, the most ancient history worthy of perusal is that of Herodotus, which comprehends the annals of Lydia, Ionia, Lycia, Egypt, Persia, Greece, and Macedonia, during above 230 years preceding 479 A. C.

Book 1. contains the History of Lydia from Gyges to Cræsus; Ancient Ionia; Manners of the Persians, Babylonians, &c.; History of Cyrus the Elder.

B. 2. History of Egypt, and Manners of the Egyptians.

B. 3. History of Cambyses.—Persian Monarchy under Darius Hystaspes.

B. 4. History of Scythia.

B. 5. Persian Embassy to Macedon; Athens, Lacedæmon, Corinth, at the same period.

B. 6. Kings of Lacedæmon.—War of Persia against Greece, to the battle of Marathon.

B. 7. The same war, to the battle of Thermopylæ.

B. 8. The battle of Salamis.

B. 9. The defeat and expulsion of the Persians from Greece.

(The merits of Herodotus are shortly characterized *supra*, Sect. XXXII. § 1.)

3. A more particular account of the periods treated by Herodotus may be found in Justin, lib. 1, 2, 3, and 7; the *Cyropædia* of Xenophon; the lives of Aristides, Themistocles, Cimon, Miltiades, and Pausanias, written by Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos; and those of Anaximander, Zeno, Empedocles, Heraclitus, and Democritus, by Diogenes Laertius.

4. The Grecian History is taken up by Thucydides, from the period where Herodotus ends, and is continued for seventy years, to the twenty-first of the Peloponnesian war. (This work characterized, Sect. XXXII. § 2.) The period he treats of is more amply illustrated by perusing the eleventh and twelfth books of Diodorus Siculus; the lives of Alcibiades, Chabrias, Thrasybulus, and Lysias, by Plutarch and Nepos; the second, third, fourth, and fifth books of Justin, and fourteenth and fifteenth chapters of the first book of Orosius.

5. Next to Thucydides, the student ought to peruse the first and second books of Xenophon's History of Greece, which comprehend the narrative of the Peloponnesian war, with the contemporary history of the Medes and Persians; then the expedition of Cyrus (*Anabasis*), and the continuation of the history to its conclusion with the battle of Mantinea. (Xenophon characterized, Sect. XXXII. § 3.) For illustrating this period, we have the lives of Lysander, Agesilaus, Artaxerxes, Conon, and Datames, by Plutarch and Nepos; the fourth, fifth, and sixth books of Justin; and the thirteenth and fourteenth of Diodorus Siculus.

6. After Xenophon, let the student read the fifteenth and sixteenth books of Diodorus, which contain the history of Greece and Persia, from the battle of Mantinea to the reign of Alexander the Great. (Diodorus characterized, Sect. XXXII. § 5.) To complete this period, let him read the lives of Dion, Iphicrates, Timotheus, Phocion, and Timoleon, by Nepos.

7. For the history of Alexander the Great, we have the admirable works of Arrian and Quintus Curtius, (the former characterized, Sect. XXXII. § 8.) Curtius possesses great judgment in the selection of facts, with much elegance and perspicuity of diction. He is a good moralist and a good patriot: but his passion for embellishment derogates from the purity of history, and renders his authority suspicious.

8. For the continuation of the history of Greece from the death of Alexander, we have the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth books of Diodorus; and the history of Justin from the thirteenth book downwards; together with the lives of the principal personages, written by Plutarch. The history of Justin is a most judicious abridgment of a much larger work by Trojus Pompeius, which is lost. Justin excels in the delineation of characters and in purity of style.

9. I have mentioned the lives of Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos as the best supplement to the account of particular periods of ancient history. It is the highest praise of Plutarch, that his writings breathe the most admirable morality, and furnish the most instructive lessons of active virtue. He makes us familiarly acquainted with the great men of antiquity, and chiefly delights in painting their private character and manners. The short lives written by Nepos show great judgment, and a most happy selection of such facts as display the genius and character of his heroes. They are written likewise with great purity and elegance.

10. For the Roman history in its early periods, we have, first, the Antiquities of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, which bring down the history of Rome to the 412th year of Rome, 342 B. C. They are chiefly valuable as illustrating the manners and customs, the rites, civil and religious, and the laws of the Roman state. But the writer is too apt to frame hypotheses, and to give views instead of narratives. We look for these in the modern writers who treat of ancient times, but we cannot tolerate them in the sources of history.

11. The work of Livy is infinitely more valuable; a perfect model of history, both as to matter and composition, (characterized, Sect. XLVII. § 10.) Of 132 books, we have only remaining thirty-five, and these interrupted by a considerable chasm. The first decade (or ten books) treats of a period of 460 years; and the second decade, containing seventy-five years, is lost; the third contains the second Punic war, including eighteen years; the fourth contains the war against Philip of Macedon, and the Asiatic war against Antiochus, a space of twenty-three years; of the fifth decade there are only five books; and the remainder, which reaches to the death of Drusus (746th Y. R., 8 B. C.), has, together with the second decade, been supplied by Freinshemius. To supply the chasm of the second decade, the student ought to read, together with the epitome of those lost books, the first and second books of Polybius; the seventeenth, eighteenth, twenty-second, and twenty-third books of Justin; the lives of Marcellus and Fabius Maximus by Plutarch; and the Punic and Illyrian wars by Appian.

12. But the history of Polybius demands a separate and *attentive perusal*, as an admirable compendium of political and military instruction. Of forty books of general history we have only

five entire, and excerpts of the following twelve. The matter of which he treats is the history of the Romans, and the nations with whom they were at war, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the beginning of the war with Macedonia, comprising in all a period of about fifty years. Of the high estimation in which Polybius stood with the authors of antiquity, we have sufficient proof in the encomiums bestowed on him by Cicero, Strabo, Josephus, and Plutarch; and in the use which Livy has made of his history, in adopting his narratives in many parts of his work, by an almost literal translation.

13. The work of Appian, which originally consisted of twenty books, from the earliest period of the Roman history down to the age of Adrian, is greatly mutilated; there remaining only his account of the Syrian, Parthian, Mithridatic, Spanish, Punic, and Illyrian wars. His narrative of each of these wars is remarkably distinct and judicious, and his composition, on the whole, is chaste and perspicuous. After the history of Appian, the student should resume Livy, from the beginning of the third decade, or twenty-first book, to the end. Then he may peruse with advantage the lives of Hannibal, Scipio Africanus, Flamininus, Paulus Æmilius, the elder Cato, the Gracchi, Marius, Sylla, the younger Cato, Sertorius, Lucullus, Julius Cæsar, Cicero, Pompey, and Brutus, by Plutarch.

14. The histories of the Jugurthine war, and the conspiracy of Catiline by Sallust, come next in order. (Sallust characterized, Sect. XLVII. § 8.) Then follow the Commentaries of Cæsar (Sect. XLVII. § 9.), remarkable for perspicuity of narration, and a happy union of brevity with elegant simplicity of style. The epitomes of Florus and of Velleius Paterculus (the latter a model for abridgment of history) may be perused with advantage at this period of the course.

15. For the history of Rome under the first emperors, we have Suetonius and Tacitus; and for the subsequent reigns, the series of the minor historians, termed *Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores* and the Byzantine writers. Suetonius rather gives us a series of detached characters, illustrated by an artful selection of facts and anecdotes, than a regular history. His work is chiefly valuable as descriptive of Roman manners, though his genius has too much of the caustic humour of a satirist. Tacitus, with greater powers and deeper penetration (see Sect. XLVII. § 11.), has drawn his picture of the times in stern and gloomy colours. From neither of these historians will the ingenuous mind of youth receive moral improvement or pleasing or benevolent impressions; yet we cannot deny their high utility to the student of politics.

16. If we except Herodian, who wrote with taste and judgment, it is doubtful whether any of the subsequent writers of the Roman history deserve a minute perusal. It were preferable that the student should derive *his* knowledge of the history of the decline and fall of the empire from modern authors, resorting to

the original writers only for occasional information on detached points of importance. For this purpose, the General History by Dr. Howel is a work of very high utility, as being written entirely on the basis of the original historians, whose narrative he in general translates, referring constantly to his authorities in the margin. The student will find in this work a most valuable mass of historical information.

17. The reader, having thus founded his knowledge of general history on the original writers, will now peruse with great advantage the modern histories of ancient Greece and Rome, by the able pens of Mitford, Gillies, Gast, Hooke, Gibbon, and Ferguson, and will find himself qualified to form a just estimate of their merits, on which (though too frequently the practice) it is presumptuous to decide without such preparatory knowledge.

18. The greatest magazine of historical information which has ever been collected into one body, is the English Universal History; a most useful work, from the amplitude of its matter, its general accuracy, and constant reference to the original authors. We may occasionally consult it with great advantage on points where deep research is necessary; but we cannot read it with pleasure as a continued work, from its tedious details and harshness of style, as well as from its abrupt transitions, and the injudicious arrangement of many of its parts.

19. Geography and chronology have been justly termed the *lights* of history. We cannot peruse with advantage the historical annals of any country without a competent notion of its geographical site, and even of its particular topography. In reading the description of all events, the mind necessarily pictures out the scenes of action; and these it is surely better to draw with truth from nature and reality, than falsely from imagination. Many actions and events are likewise intimately connected with the geography and local circumstances of a country, and are unintelligible without a knowledge of them.

20. The use of chronological tables is very great, both for the purpose of uniting in one view the contemporary events in different nations, which often have an influence on each other, and for recalling to the memory the order and series of events, and renewing the impressions of the objects of former study. It is extremely useful, after perusing the history of a nation in detail, or that of a certain age or period, to run over briefly the principal occurrences in a table of chronology. The most perfect works of this kind are the chronological tables of Dr. Playfair, which unite history and biography; the tables of Dr. Blair; or the older tables by Tallent.*

* To these may be added, "Chronological Tables of Ancient History, Synchronistically and Ethnographically arranged," Oxford, 1835, which have been frequently consulted in revising the present edition.

COMPARATIVE VIEW
OF
ANCIENT AND OF MODERN
GEOGRAPHY.

**In the following Tables, the Countries unknown to the Ancients,
or of which the Names are uncertain, are left blank.**

MODERN EUROPE.

GREENLAND, or the Artic Continent.

SPITSBERGEN Island.

ICELAND Island, belonging to Norway.

NORWAY. { 1. Wardhuis, or Norwegian Lapland.
2. Drontheim.
3. Bergen.
4. Aggerhuis, or Christiano.

SWEDEN. { 1. Lapland and West Bothnia.
2. Sweden Proper.
3. Gothland.
4. Finland.
5. Islands of Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Rugen.

DENMARK.	{	Jutland.	{ 1. Alburg. 2. Wyburg. 3. Aarhusen. 4. Rypen. 5. Sleswick.
		Danish Islands in the Baltic.	{ 1. Zealand. 2. Funen. 3. Falster. 4. Longeland. 5. Laland. 6. Femeren. 7. Alsen. 8. Moen. 9. Bornholm.

RUSSIA in
EUROPE. { 1. Livonia and Estonia.
2. Ingria, or the Government of Petersburg.
3. Carelia, or the Government of Wiburg.
4. Novogrod.
5. Archangel, Samoideia.
6. Moscow.
7. Nishnei Novogrod.
8. Smolenski.
9. Kiew.
10. Bielgorod.
11. Woronesk.
12. Azoff.

ANCIENT EUROPE.

SCANDINAVIA, SCANDIA, vel BALTIA.	{	2. Nerigon.
		3. Sitones.
	{	1. Scritofinni.
		2. Suiones.
		3. Gutæ et Hilleviones.
		4. Finningia.
		5. Insulæ Sinus Codani.

{	Chersonesus. Cimbrica.	{	1. Cimbri.
			3. Harudes.
			4. Phundusii, Sigulones.
			5. Saablingii.
	Insulæ Sinus Codani.	{	1.} Tentones.
			2.}

SARMATIA EUROPEÆ.	{	1. Hirri et Æstii vel Ostiones.
		4. Budini.
		6. Basilici.
		8. Cariones.
	{	10. & 4. Budini.
		11. Roxolani.
		12. Iazyges.

- | | | |
|---------|---|----------------------------------|
| FRANCE. | { | 1. Picardy. |
| | | 2. Isle of France. |
| | | 3. Champagne. |
| | | 4. Normandy. |
| | | 5. Bretany. |
| | | 6. Orleannois. |
| | | 7. Lionnois. |
| | | 8. Provence. |
| | | 9. Languedoc. |
| | | 10. Guienne. |
| | | 11. Gascoigne. |
| | | 12. Dauphine. |
| | | 13. Burgundy and Franche Compté. |
| | | 14. Lorraine and Alsace. |
| | | 15. Cambresis. |
| | | 16. Artois. |

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|
| NETHERLANDS
(NORTH)
or HOLLAND. | { | 1. Holland. |
| | | 2. Friesland. |
| | | 3. Zealand and North Brabant. |
| | | 4. Groningen. |
| | | 5. Overysell. |
| | | 6. Guelderland and Zutphen. |
| | | 7. Utrecht. |
| | | 8. Limburgh, part of. |
| | | 9. Luxemburgh, part of. |

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|-------------------|
| NETHERLANDS
(SOUTH)
or BELGIUM. | { | 1. South Brabant. |
| | | 2. Antwerp. |
| | | 3. Liège. |
| | | 4. Limburgh. |
| | | 5. Luxemburgh. |
| | | 6. Namur. |
| | | 7. Hainault. |
| | | 8. East Flanders. |
| | | 9. West Flanders. |

- | | | | |
|---------|---|--|----------|
| GALLIA. | { | 1. Ambiani. | |
| | | 2. Bellovaci, Parisii, Suessones. | |
| | | 3. Remi, Catalauni, Tricasses,—13. Lingones. | |
| | | 4. Unelli vel Veneti, Saii, Lexovii, Veliocasses. | } Celtæ. |
| | | 5. Osismii, Veneti, Namnetes, Andes, Redones. | |
| | | 6. Aureliani, Carnutes, Senones, Turones, Pictones, Bituriges. | |
| | | 7. Ædui, Segusiani. | |
| | | 8. Salyes, Cavares. | |
| | | 9. Volcæ, Arecomici, Helvii, Tolosates. | |
| | | 10. Petrocorii, Bituriges, Cadurci, Ruteni. | |
| | | 11. Aquitani. | |
| | | 12. Allobroges, Centrones. | |
| | | 13. Lingones, Æqui, Sequani. | |
| | | 14. Leuci, Mediomatrici, Triboci, Nemetes. | |
| | | 15. } Artnebrates. | |
| | | 16. } | |

- | | | |
|----------|---|---------------------------------|
| SAXONES. | { | 1. } Frisi. |
| | | 2. } Toxandrii. |
| | | 3. } Cauci vel Chauci. |
| | | 4. } Franci. |
| | | 5. } Bructeri, Catti, Sicambri. |
| | | 6. } Batavi. |
| | | 7. } Alemanni. |
| | | 8. } |
| | | 9. } |

- | | | |
|------------|---|----------------------|
| BELGÆ, &c. | { | 1. Menapii, Tungrii. |
| | | 2. Toxandri. |
| | | 3. Eburones. |
| | | 4. } Alemanni. |
| | | 5. } Treveri. |
| | | 6. } Remi. |
| | | 7. } Belgæ. Morini. |
| | | 8. } |
| | | 9. } |

- | | | |
|------------------|---|--------------------|
| GERMANY. | { | 1. Upper Saxony. |
| | | 2. Lower Saxony. |
| | | 3. Westphalia. |
| | | 4. Upper Rhine. |
| | | 5. Lower Rhine. |
| | | 6. Franconia. |
| | | 7. Austria. |
| | | 8. Bavaria. |
| | | 9. Suabia. |
| BOHEMIA. | { | 1. Bohemia Proper. |
| | | 2. Silesia. |
| | | 3. Moravia. |
| POLAND. | { | 1. Greater Poland. |
| | | 2. Lesser Poland. |
| | | 3. Prussia Royal. |
| | | 4. Prussia Ducal. |
| | | 5. Samogitia. |
| | | 6. Courland. |
| | | 7. Lithuania. |
| | | 8. Warsovia. |
| | | 9. Polachia. |
| | | 10. Polesia. |
| | | 11. Red Russia. |
| | | 12. Podolia. |
| | | 13. Volhinia. |
| SPAIN. | { | 1. { Galicia. |
| | | 2. { Austria. |
| | | 3. { Biscay. |
| | | 4. { Navarre. |
| | | 5. { Arragon. |
| | | 6. { Catalonia. |
| | | 7. { Valentia. |
| | | 8. { Murcia. |
| | | 9. { Granada. |
| | | 10. { Andalusia. |
| | | 11. { Old Castile. |
| | | 12. { New Castile. |
| | | 13. { Leon. |
| | | 14. { Estremadura. |
| SPANISH ISLANDS. | { | Ivica. |
| | | Majorca |
| | | Minorca. |

- | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|--|---------------|
| NATIONES
GERMANICÆ. | { | 1. Suevi, Lingæ, &c. | } Saxones. |
| | | 2. Saxones, Longobardi, Gambriui. | |
| | | 3. Cherusci, Chamavi, Gauchi, Germania Inferior. | |
| | | 4. Germania Superior. | |
| | | 5. Marci, Tinctori. | |
| | | 6. Marcomanni, Hermonduri. | |
| | | 7. Noricum. | |
| | | 8. Rhætia. | |
| | | 9. Vindelicia. | |
| | | { | 1. Boiohemum. |
| | { | 2. Corconti. | |
| | { | 3. Quadi. | |

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------|
| GERMANO-
SARMATÆ. | { | 1. Peucini. | } Germano-Sarmatia. | |
| | | 2. Lugi. | | |
| | | 3. } Burgundiones, Rugii, Guthones. | | |
| | | 4. } | | |
| | | 5. Ombroges. | | |
| | | 6. Scyri. | | |
| | | 7. } | | |
| | | 8. } | | |
| | | { | 11. } | } Bastarnæ. |
| | | { | 12. } | |
| | { | 13. } | | |

- | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------|--|--|
| HISPANIA,
vel IBERIA. | { | 1. } | } Gallæcia—Cantabri, Astures, Varduli. |
| | | 2. } | |
| | | 3. } | |
| | { | 4. } | } Tarraconensis—Vascones, Valetani. |
| | | 5. } | |
| | | 6. } | |
| | { | 7. } | } Carthaginensis—Æditani, Contestani. |
| | | 8. } | |
| | | 9. } | |
| | | 10. } | |
| | { | 11. } | } Gallæciæ pars—Accæi, Arevaci. |
| | | 12. } | |
| | | 13. } | |
| | | 14. } | |
| { | 11. } | } Tarraconensis pars—Carpetani, Oretani. | |
| | 12. } | | |
| | 13. } | | |
| | 14. } | | |
| { | 11. } | } Gallæciæ pars—Vettones. | |
| | 12. } | | |
| | 13. } | | |
| | 14. } | | |
| { | 11. } | } Lusitanisæ pars—Bæturia. | |
| | 12. } | | |
| | 13. } | | |
| | 14. } | | |

INSULÆ HISPANICÆ. { Baleares.

PORTUGAL. {
 Entre Minho e Douro.
 Tra los Montes.
 Beira.
 Estremadura.
 Entre Tajo.
 Alentajo.
 Algarva.

SWITZERLAND. {
 1. Bern.
 2. Friburg.
 3. Basil or Bâle.
 4. Lucern.
 5. Soluturn.
 6. Schaffhausen.
 7. Zurick.
 8. Appenzel.
 9. Zug.
 10. Schweitz.
 11. Glaris.
 12. Uri.
 13. Underwald.
 14. Geneva.
 15. Grisons, &c. } Confederates of the Sw

ITALY. {
 1. Savoy.
 2. Piedmont.
 3. Montferrat
 4. Milan.
 5. Genoa.
 6. Parma.
 7. Modena.
 8. Mantua.
 9. Venice.
 10. Trent.
 11. The Popedom.
 12. Tuscany.
 13. Lucca.
 14. San Marino.
 15. Kingdom of Naples.

ITALIAN
 ISLANDS. {
 1. Sicily.
 2. Sardinia.
 3. Corsica.
 4. Malta.
 5. Lipari Islands.
 6. Capri, Ischia, &c.

HUNGARY.

TRANSYLVANIA.

SLAVONIA.

CROATIA.

LUSITANIA. { Calliaci.
Lusitani.
Celtici.

HELVETIA. { 1.)
2.) Ambrones.
3.)
4.)
6.)
7.) Tigurini.
8.)
9.)
10.)

ITALIA. { 14. Nantuates.
15. Veragri, Vallis Pennina, Lepontii.
1. Lepontii, Segusini, Taurini.
2. Orobi.
3. } Liguria.
4. Insubres.
5. }
6. Anamani.
7. Boii.
8. Cenomani.
9. Venetia.
10. Tridentini.
11. Lingones, Senones, Picenum, Umbria, Sabini,
Pars Latii.
12. Tuscia vel Etruria.
13. Pars Tusciæ.
14. Pars Umbriæ.
15. Samnium, Pars Latii, Apulia, Campania, Lu-
cania, Bruttium.

Gallia.
Cisalpina, vel
Togata.

INSULÆ
ITALICÆ. { 1. Sicilia, Sicania, vel Trinacria.
2. Sardo vel Sardinia.
3. Cyrenus vel Corsica.
4. Melita.
5. Lipariæ Insulæ.
6. Capræ, Ischia, &c.

DACIA.

PANNONIA-
ILLYRICUM.

TURKEY in EUROPE.	{	1. Dalmatia.
		2. Bosnia.
		3. Servia.
		4. Wallachia.
		5. Moldavia and Bessarabia.
		6. Bulgaria.
		7. Albania.
		8. Macedonia.
		9. Romania.
		10. Livadia.
		11. Morea.
		12. Budziac Tartary or Bessarabia.
		13. Little Tartary.
		14. Crimea.
GREEK or IONIAN ISLANDS.	{	1. Corfu.
		2. Cephalonia.
		3. Zante.
		4. Santa Mauria.
		5. Carigo.
		6. Theaki.
		7. Paxo.

In the ARCHIPELAGO. { Candia, Stalimene, &c. (Turkish.)
 { Negropont, Syra, &c. (and 32 others, Greek.)

GREAT BRITAIN.

SCOTLAND.—MODERN.	SCOTIA.—ANCIENT.
1. Edinburgh.	1. } Damnii. } Vecturiones.
2. Haddington.	2. }
3. Berwick.	3. Ottodini. }
4. Roxburgh.	4. }
5. Selkirk.	5. } Selgovæ.
6. Dumfries.	6. }
7. Kircudbright.	7. }
8. Peebles.	8. }
9. Wigton.	9. } Novantes.
10. Lanark.	10. }
11. Air.	11. }
12. Dumbarton.	12. }
13. Bute.	13. }
14. Renfrew.	14. } Damnii. } Picti.
15. Stirling.	15. }
16. Linlithgow.	16. }

- | | |
|---------|----------------------------|
| | 1. Dalmatia. |
| | 2. Mæsia Superior. |
| | 3. Dacia Ripensis. |
| | 4. Getæ. |
| | 5. Pars Daciæ. |
| | 6. Mæsia Inferior. |
| GRÆCIA. | 7. Epirus. |
| | 8. Macedonia. |
| | 9. Thracia. |
| | 10. Thessalia. |
| | 11. Poloponnesus. |
| | 12. Sycthia et pars Daciæ. |
| | 13. Parva Sycthia. |
| | 14. Taurica Chersonesus. |

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------|
| INSULÆ
MARIS IONII. | 1. Corcyra. |
| | 2. Cephalenia. |
| | 3. Zacynthus. |
| | 4. Lencadia. |
| | 5. Cythera. |
| | 6. Ithaca. |
| | 7. Paxus. |

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| INSULÆ MA-
RIS ÆGÆI. | { Creta, Lemnos, &c. |
| | { Eubœa. |
| | { Scyros, &c. |

GREAT BRITAIN.

- | SCOTLAND.—MODERN. | SCOTIA.—ANCIENT. |
|-------------------|------------------------------|
| 17. Fife. | 17.) |
| 18. Clackmannan. | 18. { Caledonii. } Picti. |
| 19. Kinross. | 19.) |
| 20. Perth. | 20.) |
| 21. Argyle. | 21. Epidii, Gadeni, Cerones. |
| 22. Kincardine. | 22. Vernicones. |
| 23. Forfar. | 23. Horestæ. |
| 24. Aberdeen. | 24.) |
| 25. Banff. | 25. { Tæzali. } Attacoti |
| 26. Elgin. | 26.) |
| 27. Nairn. | 27. { Vacomagi. |
| 28. Inverness. | 28.) |
| 29. Ross. | 29.) |
| 30. Cromarty. | 30. { Cantæ. } Scoti. |
| 31. Sutherland. | 31.) |
| 32. Caithness. | 32. Mertæ. |
| 33. Orkney. | 33. Orcades. |
| 34. Shetland. | 34. Thule. |

ENGLAND.—MODERN.	ENGLAND.—ANCIENT.
1. Cornwall.	1. } Damnonii.
2. Devonshire.	2. }
3. Dorsetshire.	3. Durotriges.
4. Hampshire.	4. }
5. Somersetshire.	5. } Belgæ.
6. Wiltshire.	6. }
7. Berkshire.	7. Attrebatii.
8. Oxfordshire.	8. }
9. Gloucestershire.	9. } Dobuni.
10. Monmouthshire.	10. } Silures.
11. Herefordshire.	11. }
12. Worcestershire.	12. }
13. Staffordshire.	13. } Cornavi.
14. Shropshire.	14. }
15. Essex.	15. Trinobantes.
16. Hertfordshire.	16. Catieuchlani.
17. Kent.	17. Cantii.
18. Surrey.	18. }
19. Sussex.	19. } Regni.
20. Norfolk.	20. }
21. Suffolk.	21. } Simeni vel Icenii.
22. Cambridgeshire.	22. }
23. Huntingdonshire.	23. } Catieuchlani.
24. Bedfordshire.	24. }
25. Buckinghamshire.	25. Attrebatii.
26. Lincolnshire.	26. }
27. Nottinghamshire.	27. }
28. Derbyshire.	28. } Coritani.
29. Rutlandshire.	29. }
30. Leicestershire.	30. }
31. Warwickshire.	31. Cornavi.
32. Northamptonshire.	32. Catieuchlani.
33. Northumberland.	33. }
34. Durham.	34. } Ottadeni.
35. Yorkshire.	35. }
36. Lancashire.	36. }
37. Westmoreland.	37. } Brigantes
38. Cumberland.	38. }
39. Cheshire.	39. Cornavii.
40. Middlesex.	40. Attrebatæ et Catiench- lani.

WALES.—MODERN.

- | | |
|---|---------------------|
| { | 1. Anglesey. |
| | 2. Flintshire. |
| | 3. Montgomery. |
| | 4. Denbighshire. |
| | 5. Carnarvonshire. |
| | 6. Merioneth. |
| | 7. Cardiganshire. |
| | 8. Carmarthenshire. |
| | 9. Pembrokeshire. |
| | 10. Radnorshire. |
| | 11. Brecknockshire. |
| | 12. Glamorganshire. |

WALES.—ANCIENT.

- | |
|-----------------|
| 1. Mona Insula. |
| 2. } |
| 3. } |
| 4. } Ordovices. |
| 5. } |
| 6. } |
| 7. } |
| 8. } Demetæ. |
| 9. } |
| 10. } |
| 11. } Silures. |
| 12. } |

IRELAND.

MODERN.

- | | | |
|----------------|------------|--------------------------------|
| { | Leinster. | 1. Louth. |
| | | 2. Meath, East. |
| | | 3. Meath, West. |
| | | 4. Longford. |
| | | 5. Dublin. |
| | | 6. Kildare. |
| | | 7. King's County. |
| | | 8. Queen's County. |
| | | 9. Wicklow. |
| | | 10. Carlow. |
| | | 11. Wexford. |
| | | 12. Kilkenny. |
| { | Ulster. | 13. Donegal or Tyr-
connel. |
| | | 14. Londonderry. |
| | | 15. Antrim. |
| | | 16. Tyrone. |
| | | 17. Fermanagh. |
| | | 18. Armagh. |
| | | 19. Down. |
| | | 20. Monaghan. |
| | | 21. Cavan. |
| | | { |
| 23. Waterford. | | |
| 24. Tipperary. | | |
| 25. Limerick. | | |
| 26. Kerry. | | |
| 27. Clare. | | |
| { | Connaught. | 28. Galway. |
| | | 29. Roscommon. |
| | | 30. Mayo. |
| | | 31. Sligo. |
| | | 32. Leitrim. |

HIBERNIA vel IRENE.

ANCIENT.

- | |
|--------------------|
| 1. Voluntii. |
| 2. } |
| 3. } Cauci. |
| 4. Auteri. |
| 5. } |
| 6. } Blanii. |
| 7. } |
| 8. } Coriondi. |
| 9. Blanii. |
| 10. } |
| 11. } Manapii. |
| 12. Coriondi. |
| 13. Vennicnii. |
| 14. } |
| 15. } Robogdii. |
| 16. } |
| 17. Erdini. |
| 18. } |
| 19. } Voluntii. |
| 20. } |
| 21. Cauci. |
| 22. Vodæ, Inverni. |
| 23. } |
| 24. } Brigantes. |
| 25. } |
| 26. } Velabori. |
| 27. } |
| 28. } Gangani. |
| 29. Auteri. |
| 30. } |
| 31. } Nagnatæ. |
| 32. } |

- BRITANNIC ISLANDS. {
1. Shetland and Orkney.
 2. Western Isles of Scotland.
 3. Man.
 4. Anglesey.
 5. Wight.

MODERN ASIA.

- TURKEY in ASIA. {
1. Natolia.
 2. Amasia or Siwas.
 3. Aladulia.
 4. Caramania.
 5. Irak.
 6. Diarbeck.
 7. Curdistan.
 8. Turcomania.
 9. Georgia.
 10. Syria and Palestine.

- ARABIA. {
- Arabia Petræa.
 - Arabia Deserta.
 - Arabia Felix.

- PERSIA. {
1. Chorassan.
 2. Balk, Sablutan, and Candahar.
 3. Sigistan.
 4. Makeran.
 5. Kerman.
 6. Farsistan.
 7. Chusestan.
 8. Irak Agem.
 9. Curdestan.
 10. Aderbeitzen.
 11. Georgia.
 12. Gangea.
 13. Dagestan.
 14. Mazanderam.
 15. Gilan Taberistan.
 16. Chirvan.

- INSULÆ BRITANNICÆ. { 1. Thule.
2. Ebudæ Insulæ.
3. Monæda vel Mona.
4. Mona.
5. Vectis.
-

ANCIENT ASIA.

- ASIA MINOR. { 1. Mysia, Lydia, Caria, Phrygia,
Bithynia, Galatia, Paphlagonia.
2. Pontus.
3. Armenia.
4. Cappadocia, Cicilia, &c.
5. Babylonia, Chaldæa.
6. Mesopotamia.
7. Assyria.
8. } Armenia Major.
9. }
10. { Syria, Palmyrene.
Phœnicia, Judæa.

- ARABIA. { Arabia Petræa.
Arabia Deserta.
Arabia Felix.

- PERSIA. { 1. Pars Hyrcaniæ et Sogdianæ.
2. Bactriana.
3. Drangiana.
4.
5. Gedrosia.
6. Persis.
7. Susiana.
8. Parthia.
9. Pars Asayriæ.
10. Media.
11.)
12. { Iberia, Colchis, et Albania.
13.)
15. Pars Hyrcaniæ.
16. Pars Albanicæ.

MODERN.		ANCIENT.	
INDIA.	Mogol.	India intra Gangem.	{ Palibothra. Agora. Regni Pori et Taxilie.
	India within the Ganges.		{ Dachanos. Prasii <i>vel</i> Gangaridæ. Male.
	Island of Ceylon.	Taprobana Ins. <i>vel</i> Salice.	
	India beyond the Ganges.	India extra Gangem.	{ Sinarum Regio.
CHINA.	{ Niuche. Corea. Laotong. Pekin. Xansi. Kensi. Xantum. Nanking. Chekiam. Honan. Huquam. Kiamsi. Fokien. Canton. Quamsi. Suchuen. Quecheu. Yunum.		
	{ Sinæ.		
	{ Sericæ.		
	{ Cathæa.		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
	{		
CHINESE ISLANDS.	{ Formosa. Ainan. Macao. Bashee Islands.		
RUSSIA in ASIA.	{ 1. Astracan.		
	{ 2. Orenburg.		
	{ 3. Casan.		
	4. Siberia.	{ Tobolsk. Jeniseia. Irkutsk. Kamschatka.	
		1. SARMATIA Asiatica.	
		SCYTHIA	{ 2. 3.
		intra	{
		IMAUM.	{

MODERN.		ANCIENT.	
INDEPENDENT TARTARY.	{ 1. Great Bucharìa. 2. Karasm.	{ 1. Bactriana Sogdiana. 2. Aria.	
ALUTH TARTARS.	{ 1. Little Bucharìa. 2. Casgar. 3. Turkestan. 4. Kalmac Tartars. 5. Thibet. 6. Little Thibet.	SCYTHIA extra IMAUM.	{ 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.
CHINESE TARTARY.	{ Kalkas. Mongol Tartars. Mantchou Tartars. Corea.	SINÆ.	{
ISLANDS of CHINESE TARTARY.	{ Sagalien-Ula-hata, Jedso.		
ISLANDS of JAPAN.	{ Japan or Nippon. Xicoco. Ximo.		
PHILIPPINE ISLES. (SPANISH)	{ Lucon or Manilla, Mindanao, &c.		
MARIAN or LA- DRONE ISLANDS.	{ Tinian.		
ISLES of SUNDA.	{ Borneo. Sumatra. Java, &c. }	DUTCH.	
MOLUCCA ISLES. (DUTCH)	{ Celebes. Amboyna. Ceram. Timor. Flores, &c.		
MALDIVA ISLES.			

AFRICA.

MODERN.	ANCIENT.
BARBARY. { <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Morocco. 2. Algiers. 3. Tunis. 4. Tripoli. 5. Barca. 	{ <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mauretania Tingitana. 2. Mauretania Cæsariensis. 3. Numidia, Africa Propria. 4. Tripolitana. 5. Cyrenaica, Libya Superior.
1. EGYPT.	1. ÆGYPTUS.
2. BLIDLUGERID.	2. LIBYA INFERIOR, GÆTULIA.
3. ZAARA, or the Desert.	3. SOLITUDINES.
4. NEGROLAND.	4. AUTOLOLES.
5. GUINEA.	
6. UPPER ETHIOPIA. { <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Nubia. Abyssinia. Abex. 	6. ÆTHIOPIÆ et LIBYÆ pars.
7. LOWER ETHIOPIA,	7. ÆTHIOPIÆ pars.
8. LOWER GUINEA. { <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Loango. Congo. Angola. Benguela. Matanan. 	
9. AJAN.	
10. Zanguebar.	
11. MONOMOTAPA.	
12. MONOEMUGL.	
13. SOFOLA.	
14. TERRA de NATAL.	
15. CAFRARIA, or Country of the Hottentots.	

NORTH AMERICA.

BRITISH.	{ <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Countries on the east and west sides of Baffin's and Hudson's Bays. 2. Labrador, or New Britain. 3. Canada, Lower and Upper. 4. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.
UNITED STATES.	{ <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Maine. 2. New Hampshire. 3. Vermont. 4. Massachusetts. 5. Connecticut. 6. Rhode Island. } Eastern States.

- | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|------------------|---|--------------------|---|-------------------|--|
| UNITED STATES. | 7. New York.
8. Pennsylvania.
9. New Jersey.
10. Delaware. | } Middle States. | District of Columbia, (ten miles square, containing Washington, the seat of Government, and capital of the United States.)

11. Maryland.
12. Virginia.
13. North Carolina.
14. South Carolina.
15. Georgia.
Florida, territory of.
16. Alabama.
17. Mississippi.
18. Louisiana.
19. Michigan. | } Southern States. | Wisconsin, territory of.
20. Ohio.
21. Indiana.
22. Illinois.
23. Kentucky.
24. Tennessee.
25. Arkansas.
26. Missouri. | } Western States. | |
| | | | | | | | Missouri, territory of, to the west of the State, only partially explored.
Oregon, territory of, lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific. |

RUSSIAN,—The territory of Alaska, north-west of Oregon, to Behering's Straits.

REPUBLIC of TEXAS.

REPUBLIC of MEXICO.

REPUBLIC of GUATEMALA.

ISLANDS.

- | | | |
|----------|---|--|
| BRITISH. | 1. Newfoundland.
2. Cape Breton.
3. Bermudas.
4. Bahamas.
5. Jamaica.
6. St. Christopher's.
7. Nevis.
8. Montserrat. | 9. Antigua.
10. Dominica.
11. St. Vincent.
12. Tobago.
13. Grenada.
14. Barbadoes.
15. Trinidad.
16. St. Lucia, &c. |
|----------|---|--|

SPANISH.—1. Cuba.

2. Porto Rico.

COLUMBIAN,—Margarita.

HAYTIAN REPUBLIC,—St. Domingo, or Hayti.

- | | | |
|----------|----------------------------|------------------|
| DUTCH. | { 1. Part of St. Martin's. | 4. Buenayres. |
| | { 2. Eustatius. | 5. Curagoa. |
| | { 3. Aves. | 6. Aruba. |
| FRENCH. | { 1. Miquelon. | 5. Guadaloupe. |
| | { 2. St. Pierre. | 6. Desiada. |
| | { 3. Part of St. Martin's. | 7. Mariegalante. |
| | { 4. Martinico. | |
| DANISH. | { 1. St. Thomas. | 3. St. John's. |
| | { 2. Santa Cruz. | |
| SWEDISH. | St. Bartholomew. | |

SOUTH AMERICA.

REPUBLICS OF { New Granada.
Equador.
Venezuela, or Carracas. } COLUMBIA.

BRITISH, DUTCH, AND FRENCH GUIANA.

EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

REPUBLICS OF { Peru.
Chili.
Buenos Ayres, or La Plata.
Monte Vedeo, or Banda Oriental.
Paraguay.
Bolivia, or Upper Peru.

AMAZONIA, the vast unexplored interior lying on the Amazon and Orinoco rivers.

PATAGONIA, the southmost part of the continent.

ISLANDS. { Terra del Fuego.
Falklands. (British.)
South Georgia, &c.

AUSTRALASIAN ISLANDS.

BRITISH. { 1. New Holland, (eastern side called New South
Wales, the western called Australia.)
2. Van Dieman's Land.
3. New Zealand.
4. Papua, or New Guinea, and others.
5. Pelew, Ladrone, & Sandwich Islands.
6. Friendly, Navigator's, Marquesas, and Society Islands. } Polynesia.

The Empire of ASSYRIA, under Ninus and Semiramis, about 2200 B. C., comprehended

Asia Minor.	Assyria.	Egypt.
Colchis.	Media Chaldea.	

The Empire of ASSYRIA, as divided about 820 B. C., formed three kingdoms,

Media.	
Babylo-Chaldea.	{ Syria. Chaldea.
Lydia.	All Asia Minor.

The Empire of the PERSIANS under Darius Hystaspes, 522 B. C. comprehended

Persis.	Bactriana.	Albania.
Susiana.	Armenia.	Colchis.
Chaldea.	Asia.	Egypt.
Assyria.	Parthia.	Part of Ethiopia.
Media.	Iberia.	Part of Scythia.

The Empire of ALEXANDER the GREAT, 330 B. C. consisted of

1. All Macedonia and Greece, excepting Peloponnesus.
2. All the Persian Empire, as above described.
3. India to the banks of the Indus on the east, and Iaxartes or Tanais on the north.

The Empire of ALEXANDER was thus divided, 306 B. C., between Ptolemy, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus,

Empire of Ptolemy.	{ Egypt.	Cœlosyria.
	{ Libya.	Palestine.
	{ Arabia.	

Empire of Cassander,—Macedonia, Greece.

Empire of Lysimachus,—Thrace, Bithynia.

Empire of Seleucus,—Syria, and all the rest of Alexander's Empire.

The Empire of the PARTHIANS, 140 B. C., comprehended

Parthia.	Persis.	Mesopotamia.
Hyrcania.	Bactriana.	India to the Indus.
Media.	Babylonia.	

The ROMAN Empire, under the Kings, was confined to the City of Rome and a few miles around it.

The ROMAN Empire, at the end of the Republic, comprehended

All Italy.	Achaia.
Great part of Gaul.	Macedonia.
Part of Britain.	Dardania, Mœsia, Thracia.
Africa Proper.	Pontus, Armenia.
Great part of Spain.	Judæa, Cilicia, Syria.
Illyria, Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia.	Egypt.

Under the Emperors,

All Spain, The Alps Maritimæ, Piedmont, &c. Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia, Pontus, Armenia, Assyria, Arabia, Egypt,	} were reduced into Roman provinces.
---	--

Constantius Chlorus and Galerius divided the Empire into EASTERN and WESTERN; and under Constantine each had a distinct capital or seat of empire.

The extent of each division was fluctuating from time to time; but in general

The WESTERN Empire comprehended	{ Italy. Illyria. Africa.	Spain. The Gauls. Britian.
The EASTERN Empire comprehended	{ Asia Minor. Pontus, Armenia. Assyria, Media, &c. Egypt.	Thrace. Dacia. Macedonia.

The Empire of CHARLEMAGNE, 800 A. C., comprehended

FRANCE.	{ Neustria, comprehending Bretany, Normandy, Isle of France, Orleannois. Austria, comprehending Picardy and Champagne. Aquitania, comprehending Guienne and Gascony. Burgundia, comprehending Burgundy, Lionnois, Languedoc, Dauphine, Provence.
---------	---

Marca Hispanica, or Navarre and Catalonia.

Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, Corsica.

Italy, as far south as Naples.

Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia.

Rhætia, Vindelica, Noricum.

Germany, from the Rhine to the Oder, and the banks of the Baltic.

PART SECOND.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

SECTION I.*

FROM THE FALL OF THE WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE, TO THE
SUBVERSION OF THE LOMBARD MONARCHY BY CHARLE-
MAGNE, 476—774 A.C.

1. [The fall of the Western Empire of the Romans in 476, is the natural termination of ancient history, and the era from which we date the commencement of middle history, or, as it is generally termed, the history of the Middle Ages.

By that time the hordes of northern barbarians whose martial energy and whose numbers were irresistible had everywhere established themselves, and overturned the vast fabric of Roman power, which had taken many ages to establish. Thus, from one arose many kingdoms, whose origins were the same, and which, after many vicissitudes, still actually exist. The Anglo-Saxons were masters of the southern provinces of Britain; the Franks of a part of Gaul; the Visigoths of Spain; and the Heruli of Italy.]

2. ["Many concurring causes prepared the way for this great revolution, and insured success to the nations which invaded the empire. The Roman commonwealth had conquered the world by the wisdom of its civil maxims and the rigour of its military discipline. But, under the emperors, the former were forgotten or despised, and the latter were gradually relaxed. The armies of the empire in the fourth and fifth centuries bore scarcely any resemblance to those invincible legions which had been victorious wherever they marched. Instead of freemen, who voluntarily took arms from the love of glory or of their country, provincials and barbarians were bribed or forced into service. These were too feeble, or too proud to submit to the fatigue of military duty. At the same time that the martial spirit became extinct, the revenues of the empire gradually diminished. By the large subsidies paid to the barbarous nations to buy off their hostilities, or by the frontier provinces wasted by frequent incursions, becoming unable to pay the customary tribute. The feeble expedient to which the emperors had recourse, of taking large bodies of the barbarians into pay, and of employing them to repel new invaders, instead of retarding, hastened the de-

struction of the empire. These mercenaries soon turned their arms against their masters, and with greater advantage than ever, for, by serving in the Roman armies, they had acquired all the discipline or skill in war which the Romans still retained, and upon adding these to their native ferocity, they became altogether irresistible."*]

3. ["But though from these and many other causes, the progress and conquests of the nations which overran the empire became so extremely rapid, they were accompanied with horrible devastations, and an incredible destruction of the human species. Wherever they marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. What escaped the fury of the first inundation, perished in those which followed it. The most fertile and populous provinces were converted into deserts, in which were scattered the ruins of villages and cities, that afforded shelter to a few miserable inhabitants whom chance had preserved, or the sword of the enemy, wearied with destroying, had spared. The conquerors who first settled in the countries which they had wasted, were expelled or exterminated by new invaders, who, coming from regions farther removed from the civilized parts of the world, were still more fierce and rapacious. This brought fresh calamities upon mankind, which did not cease, until the north, by pouring forth successive swarms, was drained of people, and could no longer furnish instruments of destruction. Famine and pestilence, which always march in the train of war when it ravages with such inconsiderate cruelty, raged in every part of Europe, and completed its sufferings. If a man were called to fix the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodocius the Great, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy. The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour, and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it. *The scourge of God, the Destroyer of Nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders; and they compare the ruin which they brought on the world to the havoc occasioned by earthquakes, conflagrations, or deluges, the most formidable and fatal calamities which the imagination of man can conceive. But no expressions can convey so perfect an idea of the destructive progress of the barbarians, as the total change which had taken place in the state of Europe at the close of the sixth century, when it began to recover some degree of tranquillity. Very faint vestiges of the Roman policy, jurisprudence, arts, or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new

* Robertson's *Charles V.*, Sect. 1.

manners, new dresses, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were everywhere introduced. To make a great and sudden alteration with respect to any of these, unless where the ancient inhabitants of a country have been almost totally exterminated, has proved an undertaking beyond the power of the greatest conquerors. The great change which the settlement of the barbarous nations occasioned in the state of Europe, may therefore be considered as a more decisive proof than even the testimony of contemporary historians, of the destructive violence with which these invaders carried on their conquests, and of the havoc which they made from one extremity of the empire to another."—Robertson.]

4. [The Heruli, who deposed Augustulus, the last emperor of the West, only enjoyed their conquests seventeen years (476—493), when they were deprived of them by the Ostrogoths, who completed the conquest of Italy in four years, and retained possession of it for sixty-four years, under eight successive kings. This formidable monarchy was at last subdued in 553, after a sanguinary warfare of eighteen years, by the Greeks, under Belisarius and Narses, two of the greatest generals of the Eastern Empire. The government of Italy was ably administered by the latter, as Exarch, for fifteen years; when he was recalled in an offensive manner, which is supposed to have led the Lombards who had served under him to induce their countrymen to attempt the conquest of Italy for themselves. However this may have been, they crossed the Julian Alps in the spring of 568, under the ferocious Alboin; and Longinus, the successor of Narses, unable to resist the torrent, abandoned the country to its fate and the cities to their own defence. Pavia, which the Goths had fortified with care, was the only town that offered a vigorous resistance; and it did not surrender till after a siege of three years, 572.]

5. [Alboin made Pavia the capital of his new kingdom, which comprehended Upper Italy and a considerable part of the middle and lower districts. He conferred upon his principal officers, with the titles of dukes and counts, the administration of the conquered provinces, on condition of paying tribute and military service, which established the celebrated fuedal system as the principle of government. On his death, in 573, Clef, or Clephis, one of the most powerful of the dukes, was elected his successor; but after his murder, in 575, the dukes and counts, to the number of about thirty-six, declined to elect or recognise another monarch, and formed themselves into a federal aristocracy, each one governing his own city and its dependent territory. This form of government lasted ten years, when the dread of a Greek and Frank invasion led them to elect Autharis as their king. This prince possessed great ability and energy. He raised the monarchy from the state of anarchy into which it had been thrown by the aristocratic confederation. He ex-

tended and strongly constituted the supreme authority, and compelled the great feudatories to recognise the right of the monarch *to remove them at pleasure*, to pay one half of the income from their respective domains to the public revenue, and to provide a fixed number of troops when required. In peace a judge, a leader in war, he never usurped the powers of a sole and absolute legislator. His national assembly or great council was composed of the persons most eminent by their birth and dignities; but the validity, as well as the execution, of their decrees, depended on being confirmed by the Lombards. Every Lombard was born the soldier of his king and duke; and the civil assemblies of the nation displayed the banners, and assumed the appellation, of a regular army. Of this army the pay and the rewards were drawn from the conquered provinces. The distribution, which was not made till after the death of Alboin, was marked with injustice and rapine. Many of the most wealthy Italians were slain or banished; the remainder were divided among the strangers, and a tributary obligation imposed of paying to the Lombards a third part of the fruits of the earth. Within less than seventy years, this artificial system was exchanged for an adequate proportion of landed property. (See Gibbon, cap. 45).]

6. [The Lombards† were reputed the most courageous, the most cruel, and the proudest of their independence, of the various hordes which issued from the north of Germany; but their number was inconsiderable, and as the feudal chiefs scarcely acknowledged themselves dependent on the sovereign, they never completed the conquest of Italy. Their authority never having been acknowledged either on the Lagunes, at the extremity of the Adriatic Gulf, where the refugees founded the Venetian Republic; or on the shores of the Adriatic, now called Romagna; or at Rome, Naples, Gaeta, and Amalphi. Twenty-one Lombard kings reigned from 568 to 774, when the monarchy was subverted by Charlemagne, after having endured 206 years.]

SECTION II.*

THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

Of Arabia, and the Empire of the Saracens.

1. [THE division of the Roman world between Arcadius and Honorius, marks the final establishment of the Empire of the East. It was bounded by the Adriatic and the Tigris, and the populous countries included within it were the seat of art and learning, of luxury and wealth; and its inhabitants, who had assumed the language and manners of Greece, con-

† The Lombards, so called from wearing long beards, came to Italy from Pannonia (Sciaevonia), but their original location was on the Elbe, in the north of Germany.

sidered themselves the most enlightened and civilized portion of the human race. The government was an absolute monarchy, the emperors imitating, in the luxury and magnificence of their court, and the obedience they exacted from their servile subjects, the parade and despotism of Eastern rulers. The feeble succession of emperors, generally raised to the throne by the intrigues of the women of the palace, who governed in their name, had reduced the Eastern Empire to that state of weakness which would have soon led to its fall after that of the Western, had not the ancient martial spirit which had originally raised the Roman empire to its highest pitch of grandeur been in some measure revived in the reigns of Justin and Justinian, 518—565 A. C. In the latter reign nearly every province of the empire was exposed to the calamities of war, the Bulgarians even advancing to the walls of Constantinople, 559. Belisarius and Narses were the great defenders of the empire during this period against the arms of the barbarians.

2. In the succeeding reigns of Justin II., Tiberius II., Maurice, Phocas, and Heraclius, 565—641, the resources and population of the empire were wasted in destructive wars, principally with Persia, which had become a powerful empire under the dynasty of the Sassanides. Heraclius successfully contended against the great Chosroes II., and compelled him to sue for peace in 628, but both empires were so weakened that they were unable to resist a new power which had arisen in the wilds of Arabia* during the latter years of their struggle, which was destined to subvert the course of empires, and to establish a new religion in the world.]

The Arabians, at this time a rude nation, living chiefly in independent tribes, who traced their descent from the patriarch Abraham, professed a mixed religion, compounded of Judaism and idolatry. Mecca, their holy city, arose to eminence from the donations of pilgrims to its temple (the Caaba,)[†] in which was repositied a black stone[‡] an object of high veneration. [The custody of the temple was hereditary, in the tribe of Koreish, which gave a pre-eminence to it over the others. Of the princes

* Arabia is a peninsula in the form of an irregular triangle, inclosed on three sides by the ocean. It is bounded on the south-west by the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez; on the north-east by the Persian Gulf and the lower course of the Euphrates, and the intervening desert; and on the south-east by the Indian Ocean. Its length from this over to the frontiers of Syria, is about 1430 miles; and its breadth, from the Isthmus of Suez to Bassora, about 700 miles. The division of this country by the ancients was, according to the natural qualities of the soil, into Arabia Fertrea or (the stony), Arabia Deserta (the desert), and Arabia Felix (the happy). The Arabs boast that their country has never been conquered, but this they owe to its general sterility, the difficulty of obtaining water, and the inaccessible nature of the country.

† According to tradition, the Caaba is built over the well Zemzem, to which an angel directed Hagar, the mother of Ishmael, the reputed ancestor of the Arabians.

‡ This stone was said to have descended from heaven in those days of innocence when man was free from guilt as he came from the hands of his Creator. The stone was then white, but gradually became sullied, as man became more wicked, till at last it grew entirely black.

of this tribe descended Mahomet, the founder of the Arabian empire, and of the religion to which he has given his name. He was born at Mecca, in the year 571 of the Christian era. The precise era of his birth has been much disputed, Gibbon fixes 569, whilst others give 570, and various periods from 560 to 620 A. C. His father Abd'allah was a younger son of Abd'almotalleb, the son of Hashem, and the fourth in lineal descent who had held the sacerdotal office; hence the family of Mahomet was the most respectable and sacred in the estimation of their country. He came into the world under considerable disadvantages. His father died young, and left his widow and infant son in very mean circumstances, his whole substance consisting only of five camels and one Ethiopian female slave. Abd'almotalleb therefore undertook the care of his infant grandchild, which he not only did during his own lifetime, but on his death at the age of 110, he enjoined his eldest son Aba Taleb, the brother of Abd'allah by the same mother, to provide for him in future, which he very affectionately did, and having instructed him in the trade of a merchant, took him into Syria when he was only thirteen. He afterwards recommended him as factor to Kadajah, a noble and rich widow, in whose service he conducted himself so well, that she made him her husband, and thus raised him to an equality with the richest in Mecca. Afterwards when he began to live at his ease, he formed the scheme of establishing a new religion; or as he expressed it, of replanting the only true and ancient faith professed by Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and all the prophets, by destroying the gross idolatry into which the generality of his countrymen had fallen, and restoring it to its original purity, which consisted chiefly in the worship of the One only God. He began to put his scheme into practice by affecting a solitary life. He bestowed a great deal in charity. He retired to the desert, where he pretended he held conferences with the angel Gabriel and received from him from time to time portions of a sacred book or *Koran*, containing revelations of the will of the Supreme Being, and of the doctrines which he required his prophet to communicate to the world.

3. This religion, while it adopted in part the morality of Christianity, retained many of the rites of Judaism, and some of the Arabian superstitions, as the pilgrimage to Mecca; but owed to a certain spirit of Asiatic voluptuousness its chief recommendation to its votaries. The *Koran* taught the belief of one God, whose will and power were constantly exerted towards the happiness of his creatures; that the duty of man was to love his neighbours, assist the poor, protect the injured, to be humane to inferior animals, and to pray seven times a-day. The pious Mussulman was allowed to have four wives, and as many concubines as he chose; and the pleasures of love were promised as the supreme joys of paradise. To revive the impression of these

laws, which God had engraven originally in the hearts of men, he had sent from time his prophets upon earth, Abraham, Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet; the last the greatest, to whom all the world should owe its conversion to the true religion. By producing the Koran in detached parcels, Mahomet had it in his power to solve all objections by new revelations.

4. Dissensions and popular tumults between the believers and infidels caused the banishment of Mahomet from Mecca. His flight, called the Hijra or Hegira, which took place July 16, 622, forms the era of the Mahomedans. He betook himself to Medina, was joined by the brave Omar, and, propagating his doctrines with great success, marched with his followers in arms and took the city of Mecca. In a few years he subdued all Arabia; and then attacking Syria, won several of the Roman cities. He died at Medina, June 8, 632, in the midst of his victories, after he had lived sixty-one years, prophesied twenty three, commanded the Arabs about ten, and laid the foundation of an empire which in less than a century comprehended more countries than the Romans had conquered in eight centuries; and also after he had seen established a religion which still predominates over the half of the world as known to the ancients.] He had nominated Ali his son-in-law his successor or Caliph,* but Abubeker his father-in-law secured the succession, by gaining the army to his interest.

5. Abubeker united and published the books of the Koran. He prosecuted the conquests of Mahomet, and invaded the Roman and Persian empires in the first year of his Caliphate. His general, Caled, advanced to the Euphrates, and compelled the Persians to become tributary; whilst Abu Obadiah defeated the army of Heraclius, took Jerusalem, and subjected all between Mount Libanus and the Mediterranean. On his death in 634, after a short reign of two years, Omar was elected to the Caliphate, and in one campaign deprived the Greek empire of Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldea. In the next, he subdued to the Saracen † dominion and religion the whole empire of Persia. His generals at the same time conquered Egypt, Libya, and Numidia. The great library at Alexandria was destroyed at this time, 640. When the Caliph was entreated to spare it, he is said to have replied, "If these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran they are useless and need not be preserved; if they disagree with it, they are pernicious, and ought to be destroyed."

6. Otman, or Othman, succeeded Omar in 644, and added to the dominion of the caliphs Bactriana, part of Tartary, and

* Caliph is the Arabian word which signifies a successor or vicar. This title is now borne by the Grand Signior or Sultan in Turkey, and by the Sophi of Persia, who each claim to be the true representative of Mahomet, as the Pope pretends to be of St. Peter.

† The Arabians, were, in fact, Ismaelites, or descendants of Abraham by his concubine Hagar, but they are supposed to have assumed the name of Saracens, to induce the belief of their being the legitimate descendants of Abraham by Sarah his wife.

ravaged Rhodes and the Greek islands. His successor was Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet, a name to this day revered by the Mahometans. He transferred the seat of the Caliphate from Mecca to Couffia, whence it was afterwards removed to Bagdat. His reign was glorious, but only of five years duration, 656—660. Nineteen caliphs of the race of Omar (*Ommiades*) reigned in succession, after which began the dynasty of the *Abassides* (660), descended by the male line from Mahomet. Almanzor, second caliph of this race, removed the seat of empire to Bagdat, and introduced learning and the culture of the sciences, which his successors continued to promote with equal zeal and liberality. Harun al Rashid (Aaron the sage), an accomplished scholar, flourished in the beginning of the ninth century, and is celebrated as a second Augustus. He was a great patron of learning and of learned men. He never built a mosque without attaching a school to it. He was contemporary with Charlemagne, and reigned twenty-three years, 786—809. The sciences chiefly cultivated by the Arabians were medicine, geometry, and astronomy; and if they were not the inventors of algebra, they at least introduced the knowledge of it to the western nations. They improved the Oriental poetry, by adding regularity to its fancy and luxuriandy of imagery. The age of Arabian literature lasted 500 years, and was cotemporary with the darkest period of Europe; but as the sun of science declined in the east it arose in the west.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE MAHOMEDAN
RELIGION AND POWER.

["The rapid extension of the religion of Mahomet was mainly owing to the character and circumstances of the people to whom it was first addressed, or on whom it was first imposed. It summoned the brave, hardy, and predatory tribes of Arabia to battle, plunder, and pleasure; and divested death of its terrors, by the assurance that when incurred in religious warfare it was an incontrovertible title to an eternity of enjoyment. The courage thus animated was confirmed by the success which attended the attacks of the Arabs upon the effeminate and ill-protected people of Palestine and Syria; and the confidence of conquest combined with the enthusiasm of religion to render the soldiers of Islam* invincible before they encountered the numerous but not overvaliant hosts of Persia and the Greek empire. To the Fire-worshippers of Persia, as to the idolaters of Arabia, Mahommedanism offered a more rational creed, and the impression which the sword first made was extended and established by conviction. To the Christians and Jews of Asia and Egypt, the exercise of their religion was permitted upon payment of a slight tribute, and their political connection with Constantinople was not of a nature to inspire loyalty or patriotism. The administration of the government in both the Greek empire and Persian kingdom was singularly defective; and the functionaries, both civil and military, corrupt, luxurious, and imbecile: whilst the rule of the Califs was simple and vigorous, and the leaders of their armies distinguished for disinterested zeal, judicious energy, and intrepid valour."—*Oxford Chronological Tables*.]

* From the Arabic word *salama*, to be safe, hence Islamism signifies the "True faith," according to the Mahommedans.

SECTION III.

MONARCHY OF THE FRANKS, 450—768 A.C.

1. [AMONG the states which rose on the ruins of the Roman Empire, that of the Franks acquired the preponderance; and, for several ages sustained the character of being the most powerful kingdom in Europe.] The Franks were originally those tribes of Germans who inhabited the districts between the Lower Rhine, the Maine, the Weser, and the Elbe; and who, in the time of Tacitus, passed under the names of Chauci, Cherusci, Catti, Sicambri, &c. They assumed the name or appellation of *Franks*, or freemen, from their temporary union to resist the dominion of the Romans. [They overran Gaul in the time of Valerian and Gratian, 253—378, and took possession of some of the finest provinces of the empire. They were soon, however, taken into the pay of the Romans, and faithfully and valiantly protected their frontiers, particularly upon the invasion of Radagaisus, in 406.] Legendary chronicles record a Pharamond, a Clodion, and a Meroveus; the latter the head of the first race of the kings of France, termed the Merovingian; but the authentic history of the Franks commences only with his grandson Clovis (son of Childerick I.), who began to reign in 481. While only in the twentieth year of his age, Clovis achieved the conquest of Gaul, by the defeat of Syagrius, the Roman governor, near Soissons, in 486, and marrying Clotilda, daughter of Chilperic king of Burgundy, soon added that province to his dominions, by dethroning his father-in-law. He was converted by Clotilda; and the Franks, till then idolaters, became Christians, after their sovereign's example. The Visigoths, professing Arianism, were masters at this time of Aquitaine, the country between the Rhone and the Loire. The intemperate zeal of Clovis prompted the extirpation of these heretics, who retreated across the Pyrenees into Spain, and the province of Aquitaine became part of the kingdom of the Franks. They did not long retain it; for Theodoric the Great (king of the Ostrogoths and of Italy), defeating Clovis in the battle of Arles, added Aquitaine to his own dominions. Clovis dishonoured the latter part of his reign by many acts of cruelty, and died in 511 A.C. [The kingdom which nominally acknowledged his authority extended from the Rhine to the Pyrenees, and from the Alps to the Ouan. The Franks, who were the voluntary followers of Clovis, obtained allotments of the conquered lands in full property; but their mutual security and preservation made it necessary that each should become bound to take arms in defence of the community. This led to the establishment of the Feudal System. The towns were allowed to retain their municipal government and the use of the Roman laws, whilst general assemblies of the Franks were

held to determine on all public affairs. Clovis revised the Salic law, which is said to have been made by the Salian Franks in the time of Pharamond, by which males only were entitled to inherit.]

2. The four sons of Clovis, Thierry (Theodoric), Clodomir, Childebert, and Clotaire, divided the monarchy, [making Metz, Orleans, Paris, and Soissons, the capitals of their respective territories.] They were perpetually at war with each other, which led to many acts of savage cruelty and barbarity. A series of weak and wicked princes succeeded, and Gaul for some ages was characterized under its Frank sovereigns by more than ancient barbarism. On the death of Dagobert II., in 715, who left two infant sons, the government, during their minority, fell into the hands of their chief officers, termed Mayors of the Palace; and these ambitious men founded a new power, which for some generations held the Frank sovereigns in absolute subjection, and left them little more than the title of king. The kingdom of the Franks at this time was separated into two great divisions or provinces; the eastern part was called Austrasia, and the western part Neustria.* They were nominally governed by Thierry, but in reality by Pepin d' Heristal, mayor of the Palace and duke of the Franks, who, restricting his sovereign to a small domain, ruled France for thirty years with great wisdom and good policy, and with a power hitherto unknown to the monarchy. [He died in 714, and left his infant grandson, Theodwald, the heir to his authority, under the guardianship of his widow. The Neustrian chiefs divested them of their sovereignty, and elected Rainfroy to the office of Mayor; but their triumph was only of short duration. Charles Martel (the Hammerer), a natural son of Pepin, caused himself to be proclaimed duke of the Franks and mayor of the Palace. He then engaged in a war with Chilperick II. and his mayor Rainfroy, defeated them successively at Stauclo, Vinci near Cambray, and Soissons, 716—718, which made him master of the throne and of the sovereign authority. On Chilperick being delivered up to him, he confirmed anew the title of king to that prince.] Charles was victorious over all his domestic foes, his arms kept in awe the surrounding nations, and he delivered France from the incursions of the Saracens,† whom he entirely defeated, between Tours and Poitiers, in 732. He was brave and politic, and under the title of mayor he governed for twenty-six years with ability and success, and increased the glory of the French name. He died in 741.

* Austrasia, latinized from *Oster-rike*, *Eastern kingdom*, included all that part of Gaul between the Meuse, the Scheld, and the Rhine; as well as the German provinces beyond the Rhine. Neustria, from *Ne-oster-rike*, *North-eastern kingdom*, included the country lying between the Meuse, the Loire, and the Ocean. The remaining provinces of Gaul retained their ancient name, and formed several independent states.

† The Saracens after the conquest of Africa crossed over into Spain in 713, and destroyed the kingdom which the Goths had founded. They then crossed the

3. Charles Martel bequeathed the government of France, as an undisputed inheritance, to his two sons, Pepin (the Short), and Carloman, who governed under the same title of Mayor, the one Austrasia, and the other Neustria and Burgundy. On the resignation of Carloman, Pepin succeeded to the sole administration; and, ambitious of adding the title of king to the power which he already enjoyed, proposed the question to pope Zachary, whether he or his sovereign Childeric was most worthy of the throne? Zachary, having his own interest in view, decided that "he who possessed the power should also bear the title of king." Childeric III. was then deposed, and confined to a monastery for life, 752 A. C. With him ended the first or Merovingian race of the kings of France, which had filled the throne for 334 years.

4. [The first king of the Carlovingian dynasty, with the intention of rendering his person sacred and inviolable, was the first sovereign who had recourse to the ceremony of consecration. He was consecrated and crowned in the cathedral of Soissons, by the celebrated St. Boniface, first archbishop of Mayence. The example of Pepin was followed soon after by several princes and sovereigns of Europe.] To recompense the service done him by the pope, he turned his arms against the Lombards; and, stripping them of the exarchate of Ravenna, he made a donation of that and other considerable territories to the Holy See, which were the first, as is alleged, of its temporal possessions. [The pretended gift of Constantine, being held to be a fable.] Conscious of his defective title, it was the principal object of Pepin the Short to conciliate the affections of the people whom he governed. The legislative power among the Franks was vested in the people assembled in their *Champs de Mars*. Under the Merovingian race the regal authority had sunk to nothing, while the power of the nobles had attained to an inordinate extent. Pepin found it his best policy to acknowledge and ratify those rights, which he could not without danger have invaded; and thus, under the character of guardian of the powers of all the orders of the state, he exalted the regal office to its proper elevation, and founded it on the securest basis. On his death-bed, he called a council of the grandees, and obtained their consent to a division of his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman. He died in 768, at the age of fifty-three, after a reign of seventeen years from the death of Childeric III., and an administration of twenty-seven from the death of his father Charles Martel.

Pyrenees, and appeared in vast numbers under the walls of Toulouse, where they were totally defeated by Eudes, duke of Aquitaine, in 721. The Saracens again invaded France in 731, and penetrated as far as Sens, when Charles Martel went to the assistance of Eudes, and gained the complete victory between Tours and Poitiers in which 300,000 Mohammedans are hyperbolically asserted to have fallen. But notwithstanding that slaughter, they soon made another irruption, when they were again defeated, which finally arrested their progress.

SECTION IV.

REFLECTIONS ON THE STATE OF FRANCE DURING THE MEROVINGIAN RACE OF ITS KINGS.—ORIGIN OF THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. THE manners of the Franks were similar to those of the other Germanic nations described by Tacitus. Though under the command of a chief or king, their government was extremely democratical, and they acknowledged no other than a military subordination. The legislative authority resided in the General Assembly of the people (having the privilege of carrying arms), or *Champ de Mars*, so called from being held annually on the 1st day of March; a council in which the king had but a single suffrage, equally with the meanest soldier. But when in arms against the enemy, his power was absolute in enforcing military discipline.

2. After the establishment of the Franks in Gaul, some changes took place from their new situation. They reduced the Gauls to absolute subjection; yet they left many in possession of their lands, because the new country was too large for its conquerors. They left them likewise in the use of their existing laws, which were those of the Roman code, while they themselves were governed by the Salique and Ripuarian laws, ancient institutions in observance among the Franks before they left their original seats in Germany. Hence arose that extraordinary diversity of local laws and usages in the kingdom of France, which continued down to modern times, and gave occasion to numberless inconveniences.

3. The ancient Germans had the highest veneration for their priests or Druids. It was natural that the Franks, after their conversion to Christianity, should have the same reverence for their bishops, to whom accordingly they allowed the first rank in the national assembly. These bishops were generally chosen from among the native Gauls; for, having adopted from this nation their new religion, it was natural that their priests should be chosen from the same people. The influence of the clergy contributed much to ameliorate the condition of the conquered Gauls, and to humanize their conquerors; and in a short space of time the two nations were thoroughly incorporated.

4. At this period a new system of policy is visible among this united people, which by degrees extended itself over most of the nations of Europe, the *Feudal System*.

By this expression is properly meant that tenure or condition on which the proprietors of land held their possessions, viz. an obligation to perform military service, whenever required by the chief or over-lord to whom they owed allegiance.

Many modern writers attribute the origin of this institution

or policy to the kings of the Franks, who, after the conquest of Gaul, are supposed to have divided the lands among their followers, on this condition of military service. But this notion is attended with insurmountable difficulties. For, in the first place, it proceeds on this false idea, that the conquered lands belonged in property to the king, and that he had the right of bestowing them in gifts, or dividing them among his followers; whereas it is a certain fact, that among the Franks the partition of conquered lands was made by lot, as was the division even of the spoil or booty taken in battle; and that the king's share, though doubtless a larger portion than that of his captains, was likewise assigned him by lot.* Secondly, if we should suppose the king to have made those gifts to his captains out of his own domain, the creation of a very few *beneficia* would have rendered him a poorer man than his subjects. We must therefore have recourse to another supposition for the origin of the fiefs; and we shall find that it is to be traced to a source much more remote than the conquest of Gaul by the Franks.

5. Among all barbarous nations, with whom war is the chief occupation, we remark a strict subordination of the members of a tribe to their chief or leader. It was observed by Cæsar as peculiarly strong among the Gaulish nations, and as subsisting not only between the soldiers and their commander, but between the inferior towns or villages and the canton or province to which they belonged. In peace every man cultivated his land, free of all taxation, and subject to no other burden than that of military service when required by his chief. When the province was at war, each village, though taxed to furnish only a certain number of soldiers, was bound to send, on the day appointed for a general muster, all its males capable of bearing arms, and from these its rated number was selected by the chief of the province. The *clientela* subsisted among the Franks as well as among the Gauls. It subsisted among the Romans, who, in order to secure their distant conquests, were obliged to maintain fixed garrisons on their frontiers, to check the inroads of the barbarian nations. To each officer in these garrisons it was customary to assign a portion of land as the pledge and pay of his service. These gifts were termed *beneficia*, and their proprietors *beneficiarii*, Plin. Ep. lib. 10. ep. 32. The *beneficia* were at first granted only for life. Alexander Severus was the first that allowed them to descend to heirs, on the like condition of military service, and Constantine the Great in like manner made gifts of land to his principal officers, perpetual and hereditary.

* The well-known story of the Vase of Soissons, is an illustration of this. When the plunder taken in Clovis's invasion of Gaul was set out for distribution, he begged for himself a precious vessel, belonging to the church of Rheims. The army having expressed their willingness to consent: "You shall have nothing here," exclaimed a soldier, striking it with his battle-axe, "but what falls to your share by lot." Clovis took the vessel, without marking his resentment; but found an opportunity next year of revengeing himself, by the death of the soldier.

6. When Gaul was overrun by the Franks, a great part of the lands was possessed on this tenure by the Roman soldiery, as the rest was by the native Gauls. The conquerors, accustomed to the same policy, would naturally adopt it in the partition of their new conquests; each man, on receiving his share, becoming bound to military service, as a condition necessarily annexed to territorial property. [This obligation on the proprietors of land can be traced back to a very early period in the history of the Franks. Chilperick, who began his reign in 561, exacted a fine, *bannos jussit exigi*, from certain persons who had refused to accompany him in an expedition. Childebert II., 576—96, proceeded in the same manner, which shows that the land was held conditionally even at that early time.] With respect to those Gauls who retained their possessions, no other change was necessary, than to exact the same obligation of military vassalage to their new conquerors that they had rendered to their former masters, the emperors; and, before the Roman conquest, to their native chiefs. Thus no other change took place than that of the overlord. The system was the same which had prevailed for ages.

7. But these *beneficia*, or fiefs, were personal grants, revocable by the sovereign or overlord, and reverting to him on the death of the vassal. The weakness of the Frank kings of the Merovingian race emboldened the possessors of fiefs to aspire at independence and security of property. In a convention held at Andely in 587, to treat of peace between Gontran and Childebert II., the nobles obliged these princes to renounce the right of revoking their benefices, which henceforward passed by inheritance to their eldest male issue.

8. It was a necessary consequence of a fief becoming perpetual and hereditary, that it should be capable of subinfeudation; and that the vassal himself, holding his land of the sovereign by the tenure of military service, should be enabled to create a train of inferior vassals, by giving to them portions of his estate to be held on the same condition, of following his standard in battle, rendering him homage as their lord, and paying, as the symbol of their subjection, a small annual present, either of money, or the fruits of their lands. Thus, in a little time, the whole territory in the feudal kingdoms was either held immediately and *in capite* of the sovereign himself, or mediately by inferior vassals of the tenants *in capite*.

9. It was natural, that in those disorderly times, when the authority of government and the obligation of general laws were extremely weak, the superior or overlord should acquire a civil and criminal jurisdiction over his vassals. The *Comites*, to whom, as the chief magistrates of police, the administration of justice belonged of right, paid little attention to the duties of their office, and shamefully abused their powers. The inferior classes naturally chose, instead of seeking justice through this corrupted channel, to submit their law-suits to the arbitration of

their overlord; and this jurisdiction, conferred at first by the acquiescence of parties, came at length to be regarded as founded on strict right. Hence arose a perpetual contest of jurisdiction between the greater barons in their own territories and the (king's) established judicatories; a natural cause of that extreme anarchy and disorder which prevailed in France during the greater part of the Merovingian period, and which sunk the regal authority to the lowest pitch of abasement. In a government of which every part was at variance with the rest, it is not surprising that a new power should arise, which, in able hands, should be capable of enslaving and bringing the whole under subjection.

10. The mayor of the palace, or first officer of the household, gradually usurped, under a series of weak princes, the whole powers of the sovereign. This office, from a personal dignity, became hereditary in the family of Pepin d' *Heristal*; and his grandson, Pepin *le Bref*, removing from the throne those phantoms of the Merovingian race, assumed, by the authority of a papal decree, the title of king, and reigned for seventeen years with dignity and success, the founder of the second race of the French monarchs, known by the name of the Carlovingian, which filled the throne of France for a period of 253 years.

SECTION V.

CHARLEMAGNE—THE NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST, 768—814. A. C.

1. **PEPIN *le Bref***, with the consent of his nobles, divided, on his death-bed, the kingdom of France between his sons Charles and Carloman, 768 A. C. The latter dying a few years after his father, Charles succeeded to the undivided sovereignty in 771. In the course of a reign of forty-five years, *Charlemagne* (or Charles the Great, for so he was deservedly styled) extended the limits of his empire beyond the Danube; subdued Dacia, Dalmatia, and Istria; conquered and subjected all the barbarous tribes to the banks of the Vistula; made himself master of a great portion of Italy, and successfully encountered the arms of the Saracens, the Huns, the Bulgarians, and the Saxons. His war with the Saxons [whose territories extended from the Lower Rhine to the Elbe and the Baltic,] was of thirty years' duration, and their final conquest was not achieved without an inhuman waste of blood. At the request of the pope, and to discharge the obligation of his father Pepin to the Holy See, Charlemagne, though allied by marriage to Desiderius king of the Lombards, crossed the Great Saint Bernard from Geneva, and dispossessed that prince of all his dominions, and put a final period to the

Lombard dominion in Italy, in 774, which had been founded by the Pannonian Alboin in 568.

2. He made his entry into Rome at the festival of Easter, was there crowned king of France and of the Lombards, and was, by pope Adrian I., invested with the right of ratifying the election of the popes. Irene, empress of the East, sought to ally herself with Charlemagne, by the marriage of her son Constantine to the daughter of that monarch; but her subsequent inhuman conduct in putting Constantine to death, gave ground to suspect the sincerity of her desire for that alliance.

3. In the last visit of Charlemagne to Italy, he was consecrated Emperor of the West by the hands of pope Leo III., on Christmas day, in the year 800. It is probable, that had he chosen Rome for his residence and seat of government, and at his death transmitted to his successor an undivided dominion, that great but fallen empire might have once more been restored to lustre and respect; but Charlemagne had no fixed capital, and in 806, divided his dominions among his three sons, two of whom however died shortly after, the one in 810, and the other in 811.

4. The economy of government and the domestic administration of Charlemagne merit attention. Pepin *le Bref* had introduced the system of annual assemblies or parliaments, held at first in March, and afterwards in May, where the chief estates of clergy and nobles were called to deliberate on the public affairs and the wants of the people. Charlemagne appointed the assemblies to be held twice in the year, in spring and in autumn. In the latter all affairs were prepared and digested; in the former was transacted the business of legislation: and of this assembly he made the people a party, by admitting from each province or district twelve deputies or representatives. The assembly now consisted of three estates, who each formed a separate chamber, which discussed apart the concerns of its own order, and afterwards united to communicate their resolutions, or to deliberate on their common interests. The sovereign was never present, unless when called to ratify the decrees of the assembly. [His laws (*capitularies*) corrected a vast number of abuses, and gave new ideas of justice; but the *judgments of God*, the valuations of crimes at sums of money, and other barbarities, were unfortunately suffered to remain.]

5. Charlemagne divided the empire into provinces, and these into districts, each comprehending a certain number of counties. The districts were governed by royal envoys called *missi dominici*, chosen by the emperor from the clergy and nobles, and bound to an exact visitation of their territories every three months, [to examine into the state of religion, and to see that ecclesiastics performed faithfully their duties; to superintend the execution of the laws, and to see that equal justice was administered to all without distinction.] They also held yearly

conventions, at which were present the higher clergy and barons, to discuss the affairs of the district, examine the conduct of its magistrates, and redress the grievances of individuals. At the general assembly, or *Champ de Mai*, the royal envoys made their report to the sovereign and states; and thus the public attention was constantly directed to all the concerns of the empire.

6. The private character of Charlemagne was most amiable and respectable. His secretary, Eginhart, has painted his domestic life in beautiful and simple colouring.* The economy of his family, when the daughters of the emperor were assiduously employed in spinning and housewifery, and the sons trained by their father in the practice of all manly exercises, is characteristic of an age of great simplicity. [In Charlemagne was united the talents of the warrior, the genius of the legislator, and the largeness of mind necessary to form a great politician—born in the midst of barbarism and ignorance, he poured around him a stream of light and of glory. He pursued with constancy and with increasing ability, the end he proposed to himself, viz, establishing the reign of the laws, and a flourishing civilization; but barbarism was too strong for him; and when he died, in 814, it was re-established throughout the empire. His perpetual wars had almost destroyed the middle class of freemen; so that society now consisted of a few great proprietors and an immense mass of slaves. In the grants of Charlemagne he invariably bestows lands “with all the inhabitants, houses, slaves, meadows, moveables, and immoveables.”] Contemporary with him was Harun al Rashid, caliph of the Saracens, equally celebrated for his conquests, excellent policy, and the wisdom and humanity of his government.

7. Of all the lawful sons of Charlemagne, Lewis the *Debonaire* was the only one who survived him, and who therefore succeeded without dispute to the imperial dominions, excepting Italy, which the emperor had settled on Bernard, his grandson by Pepin, his second son.

SECTION VI.

MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, AND CUSTOMS OF THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. In establishing the provincial conventions under the royal envoys, Charlemagne did not entirely abolish the authority of the ancient chief magistrates, the dukes and counts. They con-

* This character will admit of some modification, when it is known that he had nine wives, whom he divorced with little ceremony. His daughters too were far from being models of virtue, their lives bringing scandal on the royal palace. See Hallam.

tinued to command the troops of the province, and to make the levies in stated numbers from each district. Cavalry was not numerous in the imperial armies, twelve farms being taxed to furnish only one horseman with his armour and accoutrements. The province supplied six months' provisions to its complement of men, and the king maintained them during the rest of the campaign.

2. The engines for the attack and defence of towns were, as in former times, the ram, the balista, catapulta, testudo, &c. Charlemagne had his ships of war stationed in the mouths of all the large rivers. He bestowed great attention on commerce. The merchants of Italy and the south of France traded to the Levant, and exchanged the commodities of Europe and Asia. Venice and Genoa were rising into commercial opulence; and the manufactures of wool, of glass, and iron, were successfully cultivated in many of the principal towns in the south of Europe.

3. The value of money was nearly the same as in the Roman empire in the age of Constantine the Great. The numerary livre, in the age of Charlemagne, was supposed to be a pound of silver, in value about £3 sterling of English money. At present the livre is worth 10½d. English. Hence we ought to be cautious in forming our estimate of ancient money from its name; and from the want of this caution have arisen the most erroneous ideas of the commerce, riches, and strength, of the ancient kingdoms.

4. The *Capitularia* of Charlemagne, compiled into a body in 827, were recovered from oblivion in 1531 and 1545. They present many circumstances illustrative of the manners of the times. Unless in great cities, there were no inns; the laws obliged every man to give accommodation to travellers, and it was considered the highest breach of civil and religious duty to refuse to do so. The chief towns were built of wood, and even the walls were of that material. The state of the mechanical arts was very low in Europe: the Saracens had brought them to greater perfection. Painting and sculpture were only preserved from absolute extinction by the existing remains of ancient art. Charlemagne appears to have been anxious for the improvement of music; and the Italians are said to have instructed his French performers in the art of playing on the organ. Architecture was studied and successfully cultivated in that style called Gothic, which admits of great beauty, elegance, and magnificence. The composition of Mosaic appears to have been an invention of those ages.

5. The knowledge of letters was extremely low, and confined to a few of the ecclesiastics: but Charlemagne gave the utmost encouragement to literature and the sciences, inviting into his dominions of France, men eminent in those departments from Italy, and from the Britannic Isles, which, in those dark ages,

preserved more of the light of learning than any of the western kingdoms. "Neque enim silenda laus Britanniae, Scotiae, et Hiberniae, quae studio liberalium artium eo tempore antecellebant reliquis occidentalibus regnis; et cura praesertim monachorum, qui literarum gloriam, alibi aut languentem aut depressam, in iis regionibus impigre suscitarent atque tuebantur."—*Murat. Antiq. Ital. Diss.* 48. The scarcity of books in those times, and the nature of their subjects, legends, lives of the saints, &c., evince the narrow diffusion of literature.

6. The pecuniary fines for homicide, the ordeal or judgment of God, and judicial combat, were striking peculiarities in the laws and manners of the northern nations, and particularly of the Franks. With this warlike but barbarous people, revenge was esteemed honourable and meritorious. The high-spirited warrior chastised or vindicated with his own hand the injuries he had received or inflicted, and he had only to dread the resentment of the sons or kinsmen of the enemy he sacrificed. The magistrate interfered, not to punish, but to reconcile; and was satisfied if he could persuade the aggressor to pay, and the injured party to accept, the moderate fine which was imposed as the price of blood; and of which the measure was estimated according to the rank, the sex, and the country of the person slain. But increasing civilization abolished those barbarous distinctions. We have remarked the equal severity of the laws of the Visigoths, both in the crime of murder and robbery; and even among the Franks in the age of Charlemagne, deliberate murder was punished with death.

7. By their ancient laws, a party accused of any crime was allowed to produce compurgators, or a certain number of witnesses, according to the measure of the offence; and if these declared upon oath their belief of his innocence, it was held a sufficient exculpation. Seventy-two compurgators were required to acquit a murderer or an incendiary. The flagrant perjuries occasioned by this absurd practice probably gave rise to the trial by ordeal, which was termed, as it was believed to be, the judgment of God. The criminal was ordered, at the option of the judge, to prove his innocence or guilt, by the ordeal of cold water, of boiling water, or red hot iron. He was tied hand and foot, and thrown into a pool to sink or swim; he was made to fetch a ring from the bottom of a vessel of boiling water, or to walk barefooted over burning ploughshares; and history records examples of those wonderful experiments having been undergone without injury or pain.

8. Another peculiarity of the laws and manners of the northern nations was judicial combat. Both in civil suits and in the trial of crimes, the party destitute of legal proofs might challenge his antagonist to mortal combat, and rest the cause upon its issue. This sanguinary and most iniquitous custom, which may be traced to this day in the practice of duelling, had the authority of law

in the court of the constable and marshal, even in the last century, in France and England.

SECTION VII.

A RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE AFFAIRS OF THE CHURCH PRECEDING THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. THE Arian and Pelagian heresies divided the Christian church for many ages. In the fourth century, Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, maintained the separate and inferior nature of the Second Person of the Trinity, regarding Christ as the noblest of created beings, through whose agency the Creator had formed the universe. His doctrine was condemned in the *first General Council*, held at Nice, in Bythinia, by Constantine, in 325, who afterwards became a convert to his opinions. These heresies for many centuries had an extensive influence, and produced the sects of the Eunomians, Semi-Arians, Eusebians, &c.

2. In the beginning of the fifth century, Pelagius and Caelestius, the former a native of Britain, the latter of Ireland, denied the doctrine of original sin, and the necessity of Divine grace to enlighten the understanding and purify the heart; and maintained the sufficiency of man's natural powers for the attainment of the highest degrees of piety and virtue. These tenets were ably combated by St. Augustine, and condemned by an ecclesiastical council, but have ever continued to find many supporters.

3. The most obstinate source of controversy in those ages was regarding the worship of images; a practice which, though at first opposed by the clergy, was afterwards, from interested motives, countenanced and vindicated by them. It was, however, long a subject of division in the church. The emperor Leo the Isaurian, in 726, attempted to suppress this idolatry, by the destruction of every statue and picture found in the churches, and by punishment of their worshippers; but this intemperate zeal rather increased than repressed the superstition, and led to the loss of nearly all the Greek possessions in Italy. His son Constantine V., Copronymus, with wiser policy, satisfied himself with procuring its condemnation by the church in the council held at Constantinople in 754.

4. From the doctrines of the Platonic and Stoic philosophy, which recommended the purification of the soul by redeeming it from its subjection to the senses, arose the system of penances, mortification, religious sequestration, and monachism. After Constantine had put an end to the persecution of the Christians, many conceived it a duty to procure for themselves voluntary grievances and sufferings. They retired into caves and hermitages, and there practised the most rigorous mortifications of the

flesh, by fasting, scourging, vigils, &c. This frenzy first showed itself in Egypt in the fourth century, whence it spread all over the East, a great part of Africa, and within the limits of the bishopric of Rome. In the time of Theodosius, these devotees began to form communities or *cænobia*, each associate binding himself by oath to observe the rules of his order. St. Benedict introduced monachism into Italy and founded the first monastery of the West, at Monte Cassino, near Naples, in 529. During the reign of Totila (541—552) the Benedictine order soon became extremely numerous, and most opulent, from the many rich donations made by the devout and charitable, who conceived they profited by their prayers. Benedict sent colonies into Sicily and France, whence they soon spread over all Europe.

5. In the East, the *monachi solitarii* were first incorporated into *cænobia* by St. Basil, bishop of Casarea, in the middle of the fourth century; and, some time before that period, the first monasteries for women were founded in Egypt by the sister of St. Pacomo. From these, in the following age, sprung a variety of orders, under different rules. The rule of the Canons Regular was framed after the model of the apostolic life. The Mendicants,—to chastity, obedience, and poverty, added the obligation of begging alms. The military religious orders were unknown till the age of the Holy War. (See *postea*, Sect. XVIII. § 3.) The monastic fraternities owed their reputation chiefly to the little literary knowledge which, in those ages of ignorance, they exclusively possessed.

6. In the fifth century arose a set of fanatics termed *Stylites*, or pillar-saints, who passed their lives on the tops of pillars of various height. Simeon of Syria lived thirty-seven years on a pillar sixty feet high, and died upon it. This frenzy prevailed in the East for many centuries.

7. Auricular confession, which had been abolished in the East in the fourth century, began to be in use in the West in the age of Charlemagne, and has ever since prevailed in the Romish church. The canonization of saints was for near twelve centuries practised by every bishop. Pope Alexander III., one of the most vicious of men, first claimed and assumed this right as the exclusive privilege of the successor of St. Peter.

8. The conquests of Charlemagne spread Christianity in the north of Europe. [He founded the bishoprics of Munster, Osnaburg, Minden, Paderborn, Verden, Bremen, Hildesheim, and Halberstadt;] but all beyond the limits of his conquests was idolatrous. Britain and Ireland had received the light of Christianity at an earlier period, but it was afterwards extinguished, and again revived under the Saxon Heptarchy.

SECTION VIII.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST UNDER THE SUCCESSORS OF
CHARLEMAGNE. 814—923 A. C.

1. THE empire of Charlemagne, raised and supported solely by his abilities, fell to pieces under his weak posterity. Louis *le Débonnaire*, or the Good-natured, the only survivor of his lawful sons, was consecrated emperor and king of the Franks at Aix-la-Chapelle in 813, and crowned emperor at Rheims in 816, by Pope Stephen V. Among the first acts of his reign was the partition of his dominions among his three sons. To Pepin, his second son, he gave Aquitaine, the southern third of France; to Louis, the youngest, Bavaria; and he associated his eldest son Lothaire with himself in the government of the rest. The three princes quarrelled among themselves, agreeing in nothing but in hostilities against their father. They made open war against him, supported by pope Gregory IV. The pretence was, that the emperor having a younger son, Charles, by his second wife Judith of Bavaria, who was born to him after this partition of his states, wanted to provide this child likewise in a share, which could not be done but at the expense of his elder brothers. Louis was compelled to surrender himself, together with the empress and his son Charles (afterwards surnamed *the Bald*), as prisoners to his rebellious sons. They confined him for a year in a monastery; till, on a new quarrel between Louis the Younger and Pepin, Lothaire once more restored his father to the throne; but his spirits were broken, his health decayed, and he finished, soon after, an inglorious and turbulent reign, in 840.

2. The dissensions of the brothers still continued. Lothaire, now emperor, and Pepin, his brother's son, having taken up arms against the two other sons of Louis *le Débonnaire*, Louis of Bavaria, and Charles the Bald, were defeated by them in the battle of Fontenoy, where 100,000 are said to have fallen in the field. The church, in those times, was a prime organ of civil policy. A council of bishops immediately assembled, and solemnly deposed Lothaire; assuming at the same time an equal authority over his conquerors, whom they permitted to reign, on the express condition of submissive obedience to the supreme spiritual authority. Yet Lothaire, excommunicated and deposed, found means so to accommodate matters with his brothers, that they agreed to a new partition of the empire. By the treaty of Verdun, in 843, the western part of France, termed Neustria and Aquitaine, was assigned to Charles the Bald; Lothaire, with the title of emperor, had the nominal sovereignty of Italy, and the real territory of Lorraine, Franche Compté, Provence, and the Lyonnais; the share of Louis was the kingdom of Germany, and from this he was afterwards distinguished by the appellation of Louis the German.

3. Thus was Germany finally separated from the empire of the Franks. On the death of Lothaire, Charles the Bald assumed the empire in 875, or, as is said, purchased it from pope John VIII., on the condition of holding it as a vassal to the Holy See. This prince, after a weak and inglorious reign, died by poison in 877. Under the distracting reigns of the Carlovingian kings, the nobles attained great power, and commanded a formidable vassalage. They strengthened themselves in their castles and fortresses, and bid defiance to the arm of government, while the country was ravaged and desolated by their feuds. [They compelled Charles the Bald to confirm them in their offices and privileges, 843,—to promise to transact no affairs of state without their consent, 851,—to declare for himself and his successors that the nobles had the right, whenever their demands and claims should be just, to make common cause against them, 854—and by the edict of Xiersi, that dutchies, earldoms, and all fiefs, should be hereditary, 877. The nobles then became the predominant power in the state; the great body of free yeomanry were compelled to give up their lands to the great barons, and hold them as dependent fiefs, whilst the national assemblies were changed into baronial courts. The barbarous custom of private war followed, which distracted the kingdom and led to the general ferocity of manners.]

4. In the reign of Charles the Bald, France was plundered by the Normans, or Northernmen, a new race of Goths from Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway), who had begun their depredations even in the time of Charlemagne, checked only in their progress by the terror of his arms, and by the naval force which he established to guard the mouths of the rivers. Their fleets consisted of small light vessels, which braved the storms of the ocean, and enabled them to penetrate into every quarter. In 843, they sailed up the Seine, and plundered Rouen; while another fleet entered the Loire, and laid waste the country in its vicinity,—carrying, together with its spoils, men, women, and children, into captivity. In the following year they attacked the coasts of England, France, and Spain, but were repelled from the last by the good conduct and courage of its Mahometan rulers. In 845 they entered the Elbe, plundered Hamburgh, and penetrated far into Germany. Eric, king of Denmark, who commanded these Normans, sent once more a fleet into the Seine, which advanced to Paris. Its inhabitants fled, and the city was burned. Another fleet, with little resistance, pillaged Bourdeaux. To avert the arms of these ravagers, Charles the Bald bribed them with money; and his successor, Charles the Fat, yielded them a part of his Flemish dominions. These were only incentives to fresh depredations. Paris was attacked a second time, but gallantly defended by Count Odo, or Eudes, and the venerable Bishop Goslin. A truce was a second time concluded, and the barbarians only changed the scene of their attack. They

besieged Sens, and plundered Burgundy, while an assembly of the States held at Mentz deposed the unworthy Charles, and conferred the crown on the more deserving Eudes who, during a reign of ten years, manfully withstood the Normans, [888—98]. A great part of the states of France, however, refused his title to the crown, and gave their allegiance to Charles, surnamed the Simple, 898—923.

Rollo, the Norman, in 912, compelled Charles to yield him a large portion of the territory of Neustria, and to give him his daughter in marriage. This distinguished warrior was worthy of being the founder of a state, and the new kingdom which he founded was called Normandy, of which Rouen was the capital: it became happy and flourished under his laws. He embraced the Christian religion, conquered the ferocity of his people, and made them apply to agriculture, instead of piracy, and guarded his kingdom from any further invasion. It is the race of those warriors whom we shall see presently the conquerors of England and Sicily.

THE NORTHMEN OR NORMANS.

[The Scandinavian states, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, until the eighth century, were divided among a number of independent chiefs. Contentions arose among them which led to the establishment of monarchies. Several of the conquered chiefs betook themselves to piracy, and went in quest of new settlements. The success they met with encouraged others of their countrymen to follow their example, until the national enthusiasm was raised to the highest pitch, when towards the end of the eighth century, they covered the sea with their ships, and infested successively all the maritime coasts of Europe, with a firmness and perseverance that surpasses all imagination. They were animated by a sort of religious fanaticism, which inspired them with courage for the most perilous enterprises. This reckless superstition they drew from the doctrines of Odin, who was the god of their armies, the rewarder of valour and intrepidity in war, receiving into his paradise of *Valhalla*, the brave who fell beneath the sword of the enemy; while, on the other hand, the abode of the wretched, called by them *Helvete*, was prepared for those who, abandoned to ease and effeminacy, preferred a life of tranquillity to the glory of arms and the perils of warlike adventure.

This doctrine, generally diffused over all the north, inspired the Scandinavian youth with an intrepid and ferocious courage, which made them brave all dangers, and consider the sanguinary death of warriors as the surest path to immortality. Often did it happen, that the sons of kings, even those who were already destined as successors to their father's throne, volunteered as chiefs of pirates and brigands, under the name of *Sea kings*, solely for the purpose of obtaining a name and signaling themselves by their maritime exploits.

These piracies of the Normans, which at first were limited to the seas and countries bordering on Scandinavia, soon extended over all the western and southern coasts of Europe. Germany, the kingdoms of Lorraine, France, England, Scotland, Ireland, Spain, the Balearic Isles, Italy, Greece, and the shores of Africa, were exposed in turn to the insults of these barbarians.

In 787 the Northmen began their incursions in England. In 795 they ravaged Ireland, and founded the cities of Waterford, Dublin, and Limerick, which they kept possession of until the reign of Henry II. of England, 1170. *The Orkney*, the Hebrides, the Shetland, and Feroe Islands, and the Isle of

Man, were discovered and peopled by them. Another colony peopled Iceland, where they founded a republic in 874, which preserved its independence until annexed to Norway in 1261. The Russian monarchy was founded by the Normans under Ruric, about 850, whose dynasty lasted till 1598.

Christianity was first preached in Denmark about 826, and in Sweden about 830, which, as it progressed, led to the establishment of civil government, but for centuries it had little effect in repressing the invincible propensity to wars and rapine.]

SECTION IX.

EMPIRE OF THE EAST DURING THE EIGHTH, NINTH, TENTH, AND ELEVENTH CENTURIES—THE TURKS—THE SELJUK DYNASTY.

1. WHILE the new empire of the West [restored by Charlemagne] was thus rapidly tending to dissolution, the empire of Constantinople retained yet a vestige of its ancient grandeur. It had lost its African and Syrian dependencies, with a part of Asia Minor, and was plundered by the Saracens on the eastern frontier, and ravaged on the north and west by the Albani and Bulgarians.* The capital, though splendid and refined, was a constant scene of rebellions and conspiracies; and the imperial family itself exhibited a series of the most horrid crimes and atrocities; one emperor put to death in revenge of murder and incest; another poisoned by his queen; a third assassinated in the bath by his own domestics; a fourth tearing out the eyes of his brothers; the empress Irene, respectable for her talents, but infamous for the murder of her only son, that she might herself enjoy the throne (deposed in 802.) Of such complexion was that series of princes who swayed the sceptre of the East for near 200 years.

2. In the latter part of this period, a most violent controversy was maintained respecting the worship of images, and they were alternately destroyed and replaced according to the humour of the sovereign. The female sex were their most zealous supporters. This was not the only subject of division in the Christian church; the doctrines of the († Paulicians then called) Manichees were extremely prevalent, and when proscribed by the court,

* The Albani and Bulgarians were branches of the Sclavi, who came from the countries beyond the Euxine, between the Vistula, Niester, Nieper, &c. The Bulgarians settled in the province between the Danube and Balkan about 640, and defended themselves against the emperors of Constantinople until 1018.

† The Paulicians, so called from adhering to the doctrines of St. Paul. They were opposed to images, they disregarded relics, held the orthodox doctrines of the trinity, and that Jesus Christ was the only Mediator. The old heretical name of Manichians (the sect that denied the real sufferings and the real flesh of Christ) was given to them to draw upon them the public odium. When dispersed, some of them settled in Germany, Italy, and France. They were the ancestors of the Albigeois, and those who preserved the simplicity of Christian worship, and protested against the tyranny of Rome until the Reformation.—(See Milner's Ch. Hist.)

the sword was frequently employed to suppress their tenets. [The persecution of the empress Theodora, at last drove them into rebellion, when they allied themselves with the Mohammedans, and endeavoured to establish the independence of the sect. They penetrated into the heart of Asia, and desolated the fairest provinces of the empire, 845—880.] During this period the domestic calamities of the empire were aggravated by the separation of the Greek from the Latin Church, of which we shall treat in the next section.

3. [In the reign of Leo VI., surnamed the Philosopher, the Hungarians, or Turks, a new race of barbarians of Scythian or Tartarian breed, established themselves in ancient Dacia, Moesia, and Pannonia, the provinces which form the modern kingdom of Hungary, and began to make effective inroads in the territories of the empire about 889. They also extended their ravages and devastations over Germany, Italy, and Gaul. They promoted the reign of anarchy, by forcing the stoutest barons to discipline their vassals and fortify their castles. The origin of walled towns is ascribed to this calamitous period; nor could any distance be secure against them, their cavalry plundering a circuit of fifty miles in a single day, (Gibbon Cap. 55). In 904 the misfortunes of the empire were further increased by an invasion of the Russians from the Paulus Meotis, or Sea of Azoph, under the Norman chief, Oleg (the guardian of Igor), who ravaged the coasts of the Euxine or Black Sea, and appeared before Constantinople; and again, in 941, by a still more numerous expedition, under Igor the son of Ruric, the founder of the Russian monarchy, of which two thirds were destroyed by the use of the Greek fire. After this time, during the decline of the power of the Caliphs, the empire recovered Armenia, Cyprus, Cilicia, and a part of Syria, and the conversion to Christianity of the Russians, Hungarians, Slavonians, and Scandinavians, freed Europe from their piratical incursions, and spread among them the blessings of civilization. In the eleventh century the Normans conquered all that remained to the Greeks in Italy, and under the renowned Robert Guiscard invaded the empire and signally defeated the emperor Alexius in the battle of Durazzo, 1082; while the Seljuk Turks deprived them of the greater part of Asia Minor; and by their persecution of the Christian pilgrims to Jerusalem gave birth to the romantic notion of expelling these Infidels from the Holy Land.]

THE TURKS.

4. ["Turk is the generic appellation for all Tartar nations, mentioned by the ancients under the name of Scythians. Their original country was in the vast regions situate to the north of Mount Caucasus, and eastward of the Caspian Sea, beyond the Jihon, or Oxus of the ancients, especially in Charsin, Transoxiana, Turkistan, &c.

5. "The Hungarians were one of these tribes, called by themselves *Magiars*, who had migrated two or three hundred years before towards the Sea of Azoph, and from thence into Dacia about 889, under a chief named Arphad, from whom the ancient sovereigns of Hungary derive their origin. Germany, Italy, and Gaul, agitated by faction and anarchy, as well as the Greek empire, became in turn the scene of their ravages and devastations—Germany, in particular, for a long time felt the effects of their fury. All its provinces in succession were laid waste, and compelled to pay them tribute. Henry I. emperor of Germany, and his son Otho the Great, at length succeeded in arresting their destructive career, and delivered Europe from this yoke which threatened its independence. It was in consequence of the incursions of the Hungarians, Normans, and Saracens, that the kingdoms which sprang from the empire of Charlemagne lost once more the advantages which his political institutions had procured them. Learning, which that prince had encouraged, fell into a state of absolute languor; an end was put both to civil and literary improvement, by the destruction of convents, schools, and libraries; the polity and internal security of the states were destroyed, and commerce reduced to nothing. England was the only exception, which then enjoyed a transient glory under the memorable reign of Alfred the Great.

6. "About the eighth century, the Arabs or Saracens had passed the Oxus, and rendered the Turks of Charasin and Transoxiana their tributaries. They instructed them in the religion and laws of Mahomet; and the Caliph Motassem committed the mistake of forming a body-guard of these Turks, in 841, who, like the Roman *prætoriana*, soon arrogated to themselves the whole authority. Motawakel, the son of Motassem, was put to death by these guards in 861, and his son placed on the throne. After this act of treason they disposed of the throne of the Caliphs at pleasure, and their commanders administered the government. Thus in Bagdad, the capital of the Caliphate, there rose a number of new sovereignties or dynasties, the heads of which, under the title of *Emir* or commander, exercised the supreme power; leaving nothing more to the Caliph than a pre-eminence of dignity, and that rather of a spiritual than a temporal nature. The Caliph Rahdi or Razi, desirous of arresting the progress of usurpation, created a new minister, with the title of *Emir-al-Omra*, or commander of commanders; on whom he conferred powers more ample than his vizier. This device, which the Caliph employed to re-establish the authority of the Caliphate, only tended to hasten its destruction. The Buyides the most powerful dynasty of the Emirs, who had usurped the kingdom of Persia, arrogated to themselves the dignity of Chief Commander in 945, and seized both the city and the sovereignty of Bagdad. The Caliph, stripped of all temporal power, then became grand Iman, or sovereign pontiff of the Mussulman religion, under the protection of the Buyidian prince, who kept him his prisoner at Bagdad.

7. "Such was the situation of the Arabian empire, when a numerous Turkish tribe, from the centre of Turkistan, probably invited by their countrymen, appeared on the stage, overthrew the dynasty of the Buyides; and, after imposing new fetters on the Caliphs, laid the foundation of a powerful empire, known by the name of the Seljukian Turkish. This roving tribe, which took its name from Seljuk, a Mussulman Turk, after having wandered for some time with their flocks in Transoxiana, passed the Jihon to seek pasturage in the province of Chorasán; then, reinforced by those who were previously settled there, they became so powerful that Togl Beg, grandson of Seljuk, had the boldness to cause himself to be proclaimed Sultan in the city of Niesabur, the capital of Chorasán, 1038. He conquered Persia, annihilated the power of the Buyides, then invaded the Greek empire, and over-spread with the Turkish horse a frontier of 600 miles, from Tauris to Arzeroum, and the blood of 130,000 Christians was sacrificed to the Arabian prophet, 1050. Togl was succeeded in 1056 by his nephew Alp-Arslan, who gained a signal victory in Armenia over the emperor Romanus Diogenes who was there taken prisoner, 1071. The confusion which this event caused in the

Greek empire was favourable to the Turks, who seized not only what remained to the Greeks in Syria, but also several provinces in Asia Minor, such as Cilicia, Isauria, Pamphilia, Lycia, Pisidia, Lyconia, Cappadocia, Galatia, Pontus, and Bythina."

8. "The empire of the Seljukides, was in its most flourishing state under Melek Shah, son of Alp-Arsalan, who succeeded in 1074. The Caliph Kaim in confirming to this prince the title of Sultan and Chief commander, added also that of *Commander of the Faithful*, which before that time had only been conferred on the Caliphs. On his death in 1092, the disputes that arose among his sons occasioned a civil war and the partition of the empire. These vast territories were divided among three principal dynasties descended from Seljuk, those of Iran, Kerman, and Roum, or Rome. This latter branch, which ascribes its origin to Soliman, great-grandson of Seljuk, obtained the province of Asia Minor; and is known in the history of the Crusades by the name of the Sultans of Lycaonia, where the Sultans established themselves, after they were driven from Nice in Bythina. The most powerful of the three dynasties was that of the Seljukides of Iran, whose sway extended over the greater part of Upper Asia. It soon however fell from its grandeur, and its states were divided into a number of petty sovereignties, over whom the Emirs or governors of cities and provinces usurped the supreme power. These divisions prepared the way for the conquests of the Crusaders in Syria and Palestine; and afterwards furnished to the Caliphs of Bagdad the opportunity of shaking off the yoke of the Seljukides, and recovering the sovereignty of Irak-Arabia, or Bagdad, in 1152." Koch's *Revolutions in Europe*.]

SECTION X.

THE PROGRESS OF ECCLESIASTICAL POWER, AND THE STATE OF THE CHURCH FROM THE FIFTH TO THE END OF THE ELEVENTH CENTURY.

1. [At the irruption of the northern invaders into the Roman empire, they found the clergy already endowed with extensive possessions, and as their devotion was still less enlightened than that of the subjects of the empire, so was it still more magnificent. They left indeed the worship of their deities in the forests; but they retained the elementary principles of that, and of all barbarous idolatry; a superstitious reverence for the priesthood, a credulity that seemed to invite imposture, and a confidence in the efficacy of gifts to expiate offences. Of this temper, it is undeniable, that the ministers of religion, influenced not so much by personal covetousness, as by zeal for the interest of their order, took advantage. Many of the peculiar and prominent characteristics in the faith and discipline of those ages, appear to have been either introduced, or sedulously promoted for the purposes of sordid fraud. To those purposes conspired the veneration for relics, the worship of images, the idolatry of saints and martyrs, the religious inviolability of sanctuaries, the consecration of cemeteries, but above all, the doctrine of purgatory, and masses for the relief of the dead. A creed thus contrived, operating upon the minds of barbarians, lavish though rapacious,

and devout though dissolute, naturally caused a torrent of opulence to pour in upon the church. Donations of land were continually made to the bishops, and, in still more ample proportion, to monastic foundations. The ecclesiastical hierarchy never received any territorial endowments by law, either under the Roman emperors or the kingdoms erected upon its ruins. But the voluntary munificence of princes, as well as their subjects, amply supplied the place of a more universal provision. Large private estates, or, as they were termed, *patrimones*, not only within their own dioceses, but sometimes in distant countries, sustained the dignities of the principal sees, and especially that of Rome. The French monarchs of the first dynasty, the Carlovingian family and their great chiefs, the Saxon line of Emperors, the kings of England and Leon, set hardly any bounds to their liberality. The prudent management of their revenues enabled them to become the regular purchasers of landed estates, especially in the time of the Crusades, when the fiefs of the nobility were constantly in the market for sale or mortgage. If the possessions of ecclesiastical communities had all been as fairly acquired, no fault could be found; but other sources of wealth were less pure. They inculcated the necessity of making donations and bequests of land as an atonement to Heaven for the sins of individuals. They claimed an immunity from taxation, though not in general from military service, when of a feudal nature. As an additional source of revenue, and in imitation of the Jewish law, the payment of tithes was recommended or enjoined. These however were not applicable at first to the maintenance of a resident clergy. The bishop himself received the tithes, and apportioned them as he thought fit. A law of Charlemagne, however, regulated their division into three parts; one for the bishop and his clergy, a second for the poor, and a third for the support of the fabric of the church. A parochial division came to be established, when a fixed share of the tithe was allotted to the resident minister. But this was hardly the case in England till near the time of the conquest.*]

2. [The origin of the secular power of the Roman pontiffs commences with the reign of Pepin le Bref, or the Short. This event, which had so peculiar an influence on the religion and government of the European nations, requires to be detailed. A violent controversy had been carried on between the churches of the East and those of the West, respecting the worship of images. The emperor Leo the Isaurian had declared himself against this worship, and had proscribed it by an imperial decree in 724. He, and several of his successors, persisted in destroying these objects of idolatry, as well as in persecuting those who avowed themselves devotees to this heresy. This extravagant zeal, which the Roman pontiffs blamed as excessive, excited the indignation of the Italians against the Grecian emperors. In

* Hallam's Middle Ages, Cap. 7.

those parts of Italy which acknowledged their authority, frequent rebellions arose against the imperial officers charged with the execution of their orders. The Romans especially, took occasion from this to expel the duke or governor, who resided in their city on the part of the emperor; and they formally erected themselves into a republic in 730, under the pontificate of Gregory II., by usurping all the rights of sovereignty, and at the same time, reviving the ancient names of the senate and the Roman people. The Pope was recognised as chief or head of this new republic, and had the general direction of all affairs both at home and abroad. The territory of this republic, formed of the dutchy of Rome, extended, from north to south, from Viterbo as far as Terracina, and from east to west, from Narni to the mouth of the Tiber. Such was the weakness of the Eastern empire, that all the efforts of the emperors to reduce the Romans to subjection proved unavailing, and the exarch was obliged to make peace with the republicans. This led the Lombard king, Astolphus, to attack the exarch in Ravenna, and to make himself master of it, together with the provinces of the Exarchate and the Pentapolis, and then to demand the submission of the city and dutchy of Rome, as a dependency of the exarchate. This alarmed pope Stephen III., who went in person to France to solicit the aid of Pepin, 754. This prince being anxious to render the crown hereditary in his family, induced the pope to renew the ceremony of his coronation in the church of St. Denis at Paris, and at the same time, to consecrate his two sons, Charles and Carloman. He also disengaged Pepin from his oath to Childeric, and bound all the nobility of the Franks, then present, to preserve the royal dignity in the right line of Pepin and his descendants. Pepin, in return, not only promised him succour against the Lombards, but to recover the exarchate from their hands, and to make a present of it to the Holy See. Pepin, in fulfilment of these stipulations, undertook two expeditions into Italy (754—56), and compelled Astolphus to acknowledge himself his vassal, and to deliver up to him the Exarchate with the Pentapolis, of which he immediately put the pope in possession. This donation of Pepin served to confirm and to extend the secular power of the popes, which had already been augmented by various grants of a similar kind. After the death of Pepin, the Lombards again attempted to deprive the popes of their temporal power, when Adrian I. solicited the protection of Charlemagne, who hastened to his assistance, overthrew the Lombard monarchy, and added the dutchy of Spoleto and the Marhs of Ancona, to the dominions of the pope, 774.] *

3. The Popes having acquired a temporal authority, began gradually to extend their spiritual jurisdiction over all the Christian kingdoms. Nicholas I. proclaimed to the whole world his paramount judgment in appeal from the sentences

* Koch.

of all spiritual judicatories; his power of assembling councils of the church, and of regulating it by the canons of those councils; the right of exercising his authority by legates in all the kingdoms of Europe, and the control of the pope over all princes and governors. Literary imposture gave its support to these pretences: the forgery of the epistles of Isidorus [called the False Decretals, which appeared about 800] was not completely exposed till the sixteenth century. Among the prerogatives of the popes was the regulation of the marriages of all crowned heads by the extreme extension of the prohibitions of the canon law, with which they alone had the power of dispensing. [The emperor Lothaire, grandson of Charlemagne, having repudiated his wife with the consent of a national council, and married another, Nicholas sent legates to inquire into the matter. They held a council of bishops at Metz, in 863, who confirmed the divorce, which so enraged the pope that he summoned a council at Rome, when the decree was reversed, and the bishops by whom it had been given deposed. Lothaire was afterwards compelled by the decision of the council of Attigui, in 865, to relinquish the beautiful Valdrade, and to take back Thietburga his first wife. Such was the increase of the power of the popes, within a few years.]

4. One extraordinary event (if true) afforded, in the ninth century, a ludicrous interruption to the boasted succession of regular bishops from the days of St. Peter, the election of a female pope (Joan), who is said to have ably governed the church for three years, till detected by the birth of a child (about 855.) Till the reformation by Luther, this event was neither regarded by the Roman Catholics as incredible, nor disgraceful to the church: since that time its truth or falsehood has been the subject of keen controversy between the Protestants and Catholics; and the evidence for the latter seems to preponderate.

5. While the church was thus gradually extending its influence, and its head arrogating the control over sovereign princes, these, by a singular interchange of character, seem in those ages, to have fixed their chief attention on spiritual concerns. Kings, dukes, and counts, neglecting their temporal duties, shut themselves up in cloisters, and spent their lives in prayers and penances. Ecclesiastics were employed in all the departments of secular government: and these alone conducted all public measures and state negotiations, which of course they directed to the great objects of advancing the interests of the church, and establishing the paramount authority of the Holy See.

6. At this period, however, when the Popedom seemed to have attained its highest ascendancy, it suffered a severe wound in that remarkable schism which separated the patriarchates of Rome and Constantinople, or the Greek and Latin churches. The Roman pontiff had hitherto claimed the right of nominating the patriarch of Constantinople. The emperor Michael III.,

denied this right; and deposing the pope's patriarch, Ignatius, appointed the celebrated Photius in his stead. Pope Nicholas I. resented this affront with a high spirit, and deposed and excommunicated Photius in 863, who, in his turn, pronounced a similar sentence against the pope. The church was divided, each patriarch being supported by many bishops and their dependent clergy: [the provinces of Illyricum, Macedonia, Achaia (Greece), Thessaly, and Sicily, adhering to the patriarch of Constantinople, and the western kingdoms to Rome.] The Greek and Latin bishops had long differed in many points of practice and discipline, as the celibacy of the clergy, the shaving their beards, &c.; but in reality the prime source of division was the ambition of the rival pontiffs, and the jealousy of the Greek emperors, unwilling to admit the control of Rome, and obstinately asserting every prerogative which they conceived to be annexed to the capital of the Roman empire. As neither party would yield its pretensions, the division of the Greek and Latin churches widened from this time, 880, until their final separation in 1054.

7. Amid those ambitious contests for ecclesiastical power and pre-eminence, the Christian religion itself was disgraced, both by the practice and by the principles of its teachers. Worldly ambition, gross voluptuousness, and grosser ignorance, characterized all ranks of the clergy; and the open sale of benefices placed them often in the hands of the basest and most profligate of men. Yet the character of Photius forms an illustrious exception. Though bred a statesman and a soldier, and in both these respects of great reputation, he attained, by his singular abilities, learning, and worth, the highest dignity of the church. His *Bibliotheca* [which contains an analytical account of about 280 of the most celebrated of the ancient Greek authors, the greater part of whose works have perished], is a monument of the most various knowledge, erudition, and critical judgment.

8. [The state of the church in the tenth and eleventh centuries is represented to have been deplorably corrupt and profligate. Charlemagne and his successors, particularly Otho the Great, loaded the clergy with honours and benefices, either from a zeal for religion, or with the intention of using them as a counterpoise to the ambition of the dukes and secular nobility, reckoning that lords elected for life would remain more dependent than the hereditary. They obtained grants of towns, counties, and entire dukedoms, with the prerogatives of royalty, such as judiciary powers, the right of coining money, of levying tolls, and other public revenues, &c. The bishops and principal clergy were at first devoted to the emperors, but they no sooner discovered their own strength, than they were tempted to make use of it, and to join the secular princes in order to sap the imperial authority, as well as to consolidate their own power. Amid the convulsions to which society was exposed at this period, the territorial

possessions of the clergy remained in tact. The kings whom these tempted dared not seize them for themselves; but as the nomination to spiritual dignities remained with them, they distributed them among their favourites—their creatures,—servile priests, who had nothing ecclesiastical but the name. The pope-dom became the highest object of ambition to the whole sacerdotal order; and in an age of violence and anarchy, barons notorious for their robberies, and young libertines recommended only by the favour of profligate women, not unfrequently filled the pontifical chair. The other bishops selected were often no better. Mere children were raised to the highest offices of the church; John XII. became pope at the age of twelve; an archbishop of Rheims at five; of Narbonne at ten, and many similar. Pope John XII. was deposed for his immoralities, and afterwards assassinated in 972.] The vices practised by the higher clergy naturally prevailed among all other members of the church. The German emperors, when in Rome, were sometimes obliged to put an end to such scandal. The council of Sutri, near Rome, summoned by the emperor Henry III., deposed Gregory VI., and confirmed to Henry the right of nominating the popes, without the intervention of the clergy or people, 1046. Henry nominated successively three of the most learned and the most pious of the clergy of Italy and Germany, who powerfully contributed to the reformation of abuses. This change excited a general clamour. Religious men pretended that kings introduced corruption into the body of the clergy—that they destroyed the independence which ought to belong to the ministers of God. They then began to profess an ardent desire to purify the priesthood, and to deny the right of the laity to nominate to clerical dignities. But it belonged to Hildebrand, one of the greatest characters of the middle ages, to agitate all Christendom, in order to exalt the spiritual above the temporal power. During the minority of the emperor Henry IV., a council of bishops held at Rome in 1059, at the instigation of Hildebrand, decreed that the nomination to the papal chair should be vested in the cardinal bishops (seven in number, who held sees in the vicinity of Rome.) Hildebrand became pope, in 1073—85, as Gregory VII., and carried the usurpation of the Holy See to the highest pitch. He claimed supreme dominion, both spiritual and temporal, over all persons and states in Christendom, the basis of which claim being, that the vicar of Jesus Christ ought to be superior to all human power. The better to attain his object, he began by withdrawing himself and his clergy from the authority of the secular princes; and then to withdraw the clergy from the influence of civil society, the law of celibacy was renewed in a council held at Rome in 1074, which enjoined married priests either to quit their wives or renounce the clerical order. He sought to make the clergy entirely subservient, that they might be employed as instruments to humble and subdue the power of princes. This ambitious and

daring pope was the cause of anarchy and confusion during his life, and the originator of pretensions which have disturbed the peace of society to the present time. He was the projector of the arming of all Christendom against the infidels of Asia; but it was Urban II., who, moved by the solicitations of the emperor Alexius and the preaching of *Peter the Hermit*, first proclaimed that enterprise at the council of Placentia in Lombardy, in 1095, and again at the council of Claremont in Auvergne, where it was declared to be "*the will of God.*" From that time the clergy were zealously employed in persuading all orders of society to engage in the Crusades.]

HILDEBRAND, POPE GREGORY VII.

[This extraordinary person was the son of a carpenter at Sadona in Tuscany, who, from the moment he entered into orders, was distinguished for his great talents. "He conceived in his solitude the plan of revolution, by which he proposed to himself the subjugation of the world to the sacerdotal power. In the universe he saw but God, the priest his sole minister, and mankind obedient. He designed that the whole priesthood should be moved by one single will, should know only one passion—that of establishing the will of Heaven. The whole church appeared to him corrupt: he undertook to reform it in its head, in its members, in the whole body of the faithful under its control. He anathematized all intervention of the secular power in the distribution of the dignities of the church; it was, he said, simony—making a commerce of the gifts of the Holy Spirit. The crime was the same, whether the people in their public assemblies, or nobles, or kings, took part in the election of prelates, or attempted to confer on them the investiture of even the temporal power attached to their bishoprics. He taught the priests to consider him as an unerring being, who became holy by his election—who could alone name and depose bishops—assemble, preside over, and dissolve councils: he was, he said, in short, a god upon earth—absolute master of all princes, who were bound to kiss his feet, and whom he could depose at will, by releasing their subjects from their oaths of fidelity.

"Hildebrand accomplished, at least for a time, the immense revolution which he had undertaken: he changed the spirit of the popedom, of the clergy, and the people; and he enslaved the kings. He procured by his influence, the election of the four popes who preceded him in the chair of St. Peter. The popes his successors continued, after his death in 1085, to act upon his maxims, and seemed as if still animated by his spirit. Nevertheless, he experienced from the clergy, above all from those of Lombardy, a prodigious resistance. [The unfeeling rigour of his decree against the married clergy even led to tumult and insurrection in several countries.] He tormented Italy and Germany with a constant civil war; he called in against Rome the Normans, who burned the city, and sold almost all the inhabitants into slavery; he excommunicated his heroic rival, the emperor Henry IV., and afterwards compelled him to do penance before him in the open court of the (Castle of) Canosa, (in the Modenese) whilst the ground was covered with snow; he obliged him to remain three days and three nights in the habit of a penitent, barefooted, and fasting, before he would grant him absolution. The successors of Gregory VII. excited the two sons of Henry IV. successively to revolt against him, and depose him. Henry soon died of a broken heart. Henry V., the second of these unnatural children, whose cause the pope had espoused, after having obtained the crown by the aid of the priests, became their enemy in his turn. During sixteen years he made war against the church, to maintain the independence of the imperial crown,

and the rights of secular sovereigns over the fiefs held by the clergy. The people at length, wearied and exhausted, forced these two rival powers to an agreement, in which the rights of both were curtailed. In the Diet of Worms, 1122, the emperor abandoned to the pope the investiture of bishops by the ring and crosier; while he reserved to himself the transmission of the regal rights attached to each bishopric by the concession of the sceptre. These were only exterior ceremonies; in fact, *the people alone were deprived of their rights in the choice of their pastors.* Sovereigns retained almost exclusively the nomination of prelates in their respective dominions."—*Sismondi's Italian Republics.*]

SECTION XI.

OF THE SARACENS IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. IN the beginning of the eighth century, the Saracens subverted the monarchy of the Visigoths in Spain, and easily overran the country. They had lately founded in Africa the empire of Morocco, which was governed by Muza, viceroy of the caliph Walid I. Almanzor of Damascus. Muza sent his general, Tarik, into Spain, who landed at Calpe, since known by the name of Gibraltar (Gibel-Tarik, or the hill of Tarik), in 711. In one memorable engagement, which lasted for four days, fought at Xeres, near Cadiz, in 712, Tarik deprived the Gothic king Roderic of his crown and life. [Musa having arrived soon after to second the efforts of Tarik, the conquest of Spain followed as a consequence of that victory, as well as Languedoc, which then made a part of the Visigothic monarchy.] The conquerors, satisfied with the sovereignty of the country, left the vanquished Goths in possession of their property, their laws, and their religion. Abdallah the Moor (son of Musa) married the widow of Roderic, and the two nations formed a perfect union. One small part of the rocky country of Asturia alone adhered to its Christian prince, Pelayo, who maintained his little sovereignty, and transmitted it inviolate to his successors.

2. [The Moors did not limit their conquests in Europe to Spain and Languedoc; the Balearic Isles, Sardinia, Corsica, part of Apulia and Calabria in Italy, fell likewise under their dominion: they infested the sea with their fleets, and more than once carried terror and desolation to the very gates of Rome. It is probable even that Europe would have submitted to their yoke, if Charles Martel had not arrested the career of their victories at Tours in 732, and at Narbonne in 757, when they were compelled to withdraw within the province of Languedoc. These defeats led to feuds among the Mohammedan Chiefs, which subjected Spain for a number of years to the most horrid cruelties; many cities, towns, and villages, being swept away. The next century was a period of decline, during which the Ommiadian

Caliphs of Cordova were desirous of preserving peace with their western neighbours.] Dissensions arising among their Emirs, and civil wars ensuing, Louis *le Débonnaire* took advantage of the turbulent state of the country, and invaded and seized Barcelona. The Moorish sovereignty in the north of Spain was weakened by throwing off its dependence on the eastern caliphs; and at this juncture the Christian sovereignty of the Asturias, under Alphonso the Chaste (791—842), began to make vigorous encroachments on the territory of the Moors, [expelling them from Leon and Castile, from which time may be dated the real independence of the Christians.] Navarre and Arragon, roused by this example, chose each a Christian king, and boldly asserted their liberty and independence, 858.

3. While the Moors of Spain were thus losing ground in the north, they were highly flourishing in the southern parts of that kingdom. Abderrahman, the last heir of the family of the Ommyyades (the Abassides now enjoying the Caliphate), who escaped from Damascus, and being recognised as the true representative of the ancient line by the southern Moors, founded the dynasty of the Ommyyades in Spain, and fixed the seat of his government at Cordova, which from time to time, for nearly three centuries, was the capital of a splendid monarchy, 755—1030. This period, from the middle of the eighth to the middle of the tenth century, is the most brilliant era of Arabian magnificence. Whilst Harun al Rashid the fifth of the dynasty of the Abassides, 786—809, made Bagdad illustrious by the splendour of the arts and sciences, the Moors of Cordova vied with their brethren of Asia in the same honourable pursuits, and were undoubtedly, at this period, the most enlightened of the states in Europe. Under a series of able princes, they gained the highest reputation, both in arts and arms, of all the nations of the West.

4. The Saracens were at this time extending their conquests in almost every quarter of the world. The Mohammedan religion was professed over a great part of India, and all along the eastern and Mediterranean coasts of Africa. The African Saracens invaded Sicily, and projected the conquest of Italy. They actually laid siege to Rome, which was nobly defended by pope Leo IV. They were repulsed, their ships were dispersed by a storm, and their army was cut to pieces, 849.

5. The Saracens might have raised an immense empire, had they acknowledged only one head; but their states were always disunited. Egypt, Morocco, Spain, and India, had all their separate sovereigns, who, though they continued to respect the Caliph of Bagdad as the successor of the Prophet, acknowledged no temporal subjection to his government.



SECTION XII.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST—AND ITALY IN THE TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH CENTURIES.

1. THE empire founded by Charlemagne now subsisted only in name. Arnold, a bastard son of Carloman, possessed Germany, 888—99. Italy was divided between Guido duke of Spoleto and Berenger I. duke of Friuli, who had received these duchies from Charles the Bald. France though claimed by Arnold, was governed by Eudes, during the minority of Charles the Simple, 888—898. Thus the empire in reality consisted only of a part of Germany, while France, Spain, Italy, Burgundy, and the countries between the Maese and Rhine, were all subject to different powers. The emperors were at this time elected by the bishops and grandees, all of whom claimed a voice. In this manner Louis, the son of Arnold, the last of the blood of Charlemagne, was chosen emperor after the death of his father, in 899. On his demise in 911, Otho duke of Saxony, by his credit with his brother grandees, conferred the empire on Conrad duke of Franconia, at whose death, Henry, surnamed the Fowler, son of the same duke Otho, was elected emperor, in 919.

2. Henry I. (the Fowler), duke of Saxony, a prince of great abilities, introduced order and good government into the empire. He united the grandees, and curbed their usurpations; humbled the Hungarians; improved the military system, built, embellished, and fortified the cities, as a security against the irruptions of the barbarians; and enforced with great rigour the execution of the laws in the repression of all enormities. He had been consecrated by his own bishops, and maintained no correspondence with the See of Rome, which led the popes to give the title of emperor to Italian princes.

3. His son Otho I. (the Great) succeeded him in 938, and again united Italy to the empire, keeping the popedom in complete subjection. He made Denmark tributary to the imperial crown, annexed the crown of Bohemia to his own dominions, and seemed to aim at a paramount authority over all the sovereigns of Europe.

4. Otho owed his ascendancy in Italy to the disorders of the Papacy. Formosus, twice excommunicated by pope John VIII., had himself arrived at the triple crown. On his death, his rival, pope Stephen VII., caused his body to be dug out of the grave, and, after trial for his crimes, condemned it to be flung into the Tiber. The friends of Formosus fished up the corpse, and had interest to procure the deposition of Stephen, who was strangled in prison. A succeeding pope, Sergius III., again dug up the ill-fated carcass, and once more threw it into the river. Two infamous women, Marozia, and Theodora, managed for many years the Popedom, and filled the chair of St Peter with their own gallants or their adulterous offspring. Such was the state of the

Holy See, when Berenger, duke of Friuli, disputed the sovereignty of Italy with Hugh of Arles. The Italian states and pope XII., who took part against Berenger, invited Otho to control the disorders of the country. He entered Italy, defeated Berenger, and was consecrated emperor by the pope, with the titles Cæsar and Augustus (962); in return for which honours he confirmed the donations made to the Holy See by his predecessors Pepin, Charlemagne, and Louis the Débonnaire.

5. But pope John XII. was false to his new ally. He sought his peace with Berenger, and both turned their arms against emperor. Otho flew back to Rome, and revenged himself by the trial and deposition of the pope; but he had scarcely left the city when John, by the aid of his party, displaced his rival, Leo IX. Otho once more returned, and took exemplary vengeance on his enemies, by hanging one-half of the senate. Calling together the Lateran council in 964, he created a new pope (Benedict V.) and obtained from the assembled bishops a solemn acknowledgment of the absolute right of the emperor to elect to the papacy to give the investiture of the crown of Italy, and to nominate all vacant bishoprics; concessions no longer observed than when the emperor was present to enforce them.

6. Such was the state of Rome and Italy under Otho the Great, who died in 973. ["His son Otho II., and his grandson Otho III., were successively acknowledged emperors of Italy, from 967 to 1002. When this branch of the house of Saxony became extinct, Henry II. of Bavaria, Conrad II. (the Salic) of Franconia, filled the throne from 1002 to 1039. During this period of nearly eighty years German emperors twelve times entered Italy at the head of armies, which they always drew up in the plains of Ronco near Placentia: there they held the states of Lombardy, received homage from the Italian feudatories, caused the rents due to be paid, and promulgated laws for the government of Italy. During these five reigns, the social power became more and more weak in Italy. The emperors were too happy to acknowledge the local authorities, whatever they were, whenever they could obtain from them their pecuniary dues: sometimes they were dukes and marquesses, whose dignities had survived the disasters of various invasions and of civil wars; sometimes the archbishops and bishops of great cities, whom Charlemagne and his successors had frequently invested with duchies and counties that had been granted to the crown; sometimes, finally, they were the magistrates themselves, who, although elected by the people, received from the monarch the title of imperial vicars, and took part with the nobles and prelates in the *Plaids* (or *Placita*), or diets of Rome. After a stay of some months the emperor returned with his army into Germany; the nobles returned to their castles, the judges and magistrates to their cities. Neither of these last acknowledged any superior authority to their own.

force than what they could themselves employ to assert what they called their rights. Opposite interests could not fail to produce collision, and the war was universal. In the time of Conrad II. the Salic, the prelates almost throughout Lombardy joined the cities against the nobles; and from 1035 to 1039 there was a general war between these two orders of society. Conrad put an end to it, by a constitution which is considered to be the basis of feudal law. By this the inheritance of fiefs was protected from the caprices of the lords and of the crown,—the most oppressive conditions of feudal dependence were suppressed or softened,—and the few remaining slaves of the land were set free." Sismondi.]

7. [The crown of Conrad II. the Salic, passed in a direct line to his son, grandson, and great-grandson. The first, Henry III., reigned from 1039 to 1056; the second, Henry IV., from 1056 to 1106; the third, Henry V., from 1106 to 1125. Henry III., was a prince of great ability. He rendered himself very powerful, and one of the most despotic sovereigns of Germany; he disposed of duchies without consulting the diet, and put an end to the form of popular concurrence in conferring them; he also strenuously vindicated his right of nomination to the papal chair, and created three successive popes without opposition, though with a constant resistance on the part of the Romans and a general repugnance of the pope, when once established. The reigns of Henry IV., and V., were troubled by the bloody quarrel between the empire and the court of Rome, which was stirred up by Hildebrand (pope Gregory VII.), called the war of investitures, which continued above sixty years.] In those ages of ecclesiastical profligacy, it was not unusual to put up the Popedom to sale. Benedict VIII., and John XIX., two brothers, publicly bought the chair of St. Peter, one after the other; and to keep it in their family, it was afterwards purchased by their friends for Benedict IX., a child of twelve years of age. Three popes, each pretending regular election, and equal right, agreed first to divide the revenues between them, and afterwards sold all their shares to a fourth. (See Sect. X.)

SECTION XIII.

HISTORY OF BRITAIN FROM ITS EARLIEST PERIOD DOWN TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. THE history of Britain has been postponed to this time, in order that it may be considered in one connected view from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government.

We strive not to pierce through that mist of obscurity which

veils the original population of the British isles ; remarking only as a matter of high probability, that they derived their first inhabitants from the Celtæ of Gaul. Their authentic history commences with the first Roman invasion : and we learn from Cæsar and Tacitus, that the country was at that period in a state very remote from barbarism. It was divided into a number of small independent sovereignties, each prince having a regular army and a fixed revenue. The manners, language, and religion of the people were the same with those of the Gallic Celtæ. The last was the Druidical system, whose influence pervaded every department of the government, and, by its power over the minds of the people, supplied the imperfection of laws.

2. Julius Cæsar, after the conquest of Gaul, turned his eyes towards Britain. He landed on the southern coast of the island, in 55 B. C.; and meeting with most obstinate resistance, though on the whole gaining some advantage, he found himself obliged, after a short campaign, to withdraw for the winter into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a great increase of force, an army of 20,000 foot, a competent body of horse, and a fleet of 800 sail. The independent chiefs of the Britons united their forces under Cassibelan, king of the Trinobantes, and, encountering the legions with great resolution, displayed all the ability of practised warriors. But the contest was vain. Cæsar advanced into the country, burned Verulamium (St Albans), the capital of Cassibelan, and, after forcing the Britons into articles of submission, returned to Gaul.

3. The domestic disorders of Italy gave tranquillity to the Britons for near a century ; but, in the reign of Claudius, the conquest of the island was determined. The emperor landed in Britain, and compelled the submission of the south-eastern provinces, 43 A. C. Ostorius Scapula defeated Caractacus, who was sent prisoner to Rome, 51 A. C. [He was paraded through the streets of Rome together with his wife, daughter, and brothers ; but the captive monarch bore himself so nobly that he excited great admiration. Claudius is said to have restored him to liberty, and to have named him governor of a part of Britain.] Suetonius Paulinus, the general of Nero, destroyed Mona (Anglesey, or, as others think Man), the centre of the Druidical superstition.* The Iceni (inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk), under their queen Boadicea, attacked several of the Roman settlements. London, with its Roman garrison, was burned to ashes.

* The Druids were not only the priests, and the instructors of youth, but the judges, civil and criminal ; they decided all controversies among states, as well as among private persons : and whoever refused to submit to their decree was exposed to the most severe penalties ; they were excommunicated, their company was represented as profane and infamous, and they were refused the protection of the law. They practised their rites in dark groves or other secret recesses, and exercised great authority over the people. No idolatrous worship ever attained such an ascendancy over mankind as Druidism, and as the Romans found it impossible to reduce the Gauls and Britons to submission so long as it was tolerated, they prohibited its exercise, and put the priests to death wherever they could find them.

But a decisive battle ensued, in which 80,000 of the Britons fell in the field (61 A. C.); and Boadicea, to escape falling into the hands of the victor, put an end to her life by poison. The reduction of (the southern parts of) the island, however, was not finally completed till thirty years afterwards, by Julius Agricola, who governed it in the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian. [This great commander carried his victorious arms northwards, defeated the Britons in every encounter, and afterwards the Caledonians under Galgacus, in a great battle on the Grampian hills. The Roman power was then firmly established on the island, and having fixed a chain of forts and garrisons between the friths of Forth and Clyde to prevent the incursions of the Caledonians, Agricola reconciled the southern inhabitants, by the introduction of Roman arts and improvements, to the government of their conquerors. The emperor Adrian visited Britain in 120 A.C., and after restoring tranquillity, caused a ditch and rampart of turf to be formed from the Solway frith on the western, to the mouth of the Tyne on the eastern side, a distance of upwards of sixty miles. Lollius Urbicus in 140 extended the Roman authority northwards, and constructed a second line of fortifications from the Forth to the Clyde, called Antoninus's wall. The Caledonians continued their hostilities, which required the presence of the emperor Severus in 207, who again narrowed the boundaries to the river Tyne, and built a wall of stone twelve feet high and eight feet thick. He died at York in 211.]

4. [Southern Britain enjoyed comparative tranquillity from the death of Severus until 383, when Maximus carried over the greater part of the army for his invasion of Italy, which never returning, left the country exposed to the inroads of the Scots and Picts on the north, and the Saxons on the coasts. The civil wars, and the invasion of the empire by the barbarians which followed, not only prevented the emperors from attending to the defence of Britain, but required the withdrawal of the remaining legions, which took place about 402. From this period Britain was considered an independent country,] but it was only to become the object of incessant predatory invasion from their brethren of the north, [and to be harassed by the domestic warfare of numerous petty chieftains.] The Romans, after rebuilding the wall of Severus, finally bid adieu to Britain, (probably about 410), after having held possession of the greatest part of the island for near four centuries. The Picts and Caledonians now broke down upon the south, ravaging and desolating the country, though without a purpose of conquest, merely, as it appears, for the supply of their temporary wants. After repeated applications for aid from Rome, without success, the Britons meanly solicited the Angles, Jutlanders, and Saxons of Germany, for succour and protection.

5. The Anglo-Saxons received the embassy with great satis-

faction. Britain had been long known to them in their piratical voyages to its coasts. They landed to the amount of 1,600, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, (at Ebbsfleet in the isle of Thanet), in 449, and, joining the south Britons, soon compelled the Scots to retire to their mountains. They next turned their thoughts to the entire reduction of the Britons; and receiving large reinforcements of their countrymen, after an obstinate contest of nearly 150 years, they reduced the whole of England under the Anglo-Saxon government.* Seven distinct provinces became as many independent kingdoms, [viz. Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Northumberland, East Anglia, and Mercia.† Each of these kingdoms had severally their own kings; but they were all united in a political association, known by the name of the Heptarchy. One of the seven kings was the head of the confederation, and presided in the general convention of the whole, called the *Wittenagemot*, or assembly of the wise men. Each kingdom was likewise governed by its own laws, and had its separate assemblies of principal men, whose power limited the royal authority.

6. The history of the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy is uninteresting, from its obscurity and confusion. It is sufficient to mark the duration of the several kingdoms, till their union under Egbert. Kent began in 455, and lasted, under seventeen princes, till 827, when it was subdued by the West Saxons. Under Ethelbert, one of its kings, the Saxons were converted to Christianity by the monk Augustine. Northumberland began in 597, and lasted under twenty-three kings, till 792. East Anglia began in 575, and ended in 793. Mercia subsisted from 582 to 827. Essex had fourteen princes from 527 to 747; Sussex only five, before its reduction under the dominion of the west Saxons, about 600. Wessex, which finally subdued and united the whole of the Heptarchy, began in 519, and had not subsisted above eighty years, when Cadwalla, its king, conquered and annexed Sussex to his dominions. As there was no fixed rule of succession, it was the policy of the Saxon princes to put to death all the rivals of their intended successor. From this cause, and from the passion for celibacy, the royal families were nearly extinguished in the kingdoms of the Heptarchy; and Egbert, prince of the west Saxons, remained the sole surviving descendant of the Saxon conquerors of Britain. This circumstance, so favourable

* The conquests of the Anglo-Saxons replunged Britain into that state of barbarism from which it had been raised by the Romans. Many towns and villages, with their inhabitants, were destroyed; and the captives, without distinction of rank, sex, or age, were divided with the lands among the conquerors—many found an asylum in the mountains; a large body abandoned their country, settled in France, and gave their name to the present Bretayne, or Britany.

† *Wessex*, or kingdom of the West Saxons, extended over the counties of Berks, Hants, Isle of Wight, Wilts, Devon, and Cornwall.—*Essex* comprehended the counties of Essex, Middlesex, and a part of Hertfordshire.—*East Anglia*, the counties of Cambridge, Suffolk, and Norfolk.—and *Mercia*, all the midland counties from the Severn to the frontiers of East Anglia and Essex.

to his ambition, prompted him to attempt the conquest of the Heptarchy. He succeeded in that enterprise; and, by his victorious arms and judicious policy, the whole of the separate states were united into one great kingdom, in 827, near 400 years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain.

7. England, thus united, was far from enjoying tranquillity. The piratical Normans or Danes had for fifty years desolated her coasts, and continued for some centuries after this period to be a perpetual scourge to the country. Under Alfred (the Great), son of Ethelwolf, and grandson of Egbert, the kingdom was from this cause reduced to extreme wretchedness. The heroic Alfred, in the first year of his reign, 871, engaged and defeated the Danes in eight battles; when a new irruption of their countrymen forced him to solicit a peace, which these pirates constantly interrupted by new hostilities. The monarch himself was compelled to seek his safety for many months in an obscure quarter of the country, till the disorders of the Danish army offered a fair opportunity for attacking them, which he improved to the entire defeat of his enemies, 878. He might have cut them all to pieces, but he chose rather to spare and to incorporate them with his English subjects, giving them possessions in Northumbria and East Anglia, which had been greatly depopulated in the late wars. During fifteen years of tranquillity Alfred improved the army and navy, created a militia, and built fortresses. In 893 the Danes, under Hastings, one of the most renowned of the sea-kings, again invaded England, but after a three years' war they were defeated with immense loss: and the extreme severity now from necessity shown to the vanquished, had the effect of suspending, for several years, the Danish depredations.

8. Alfred, whether considered in his public or private character, deserves to be reckoned among the best and greatest of princes. He united the most enterprising and heroic spirit with consummate prudence and moderation; the utmost vigour of authority with the most engaging gentleness of manner; the most exemplary justice with the greatest lenity; the talents of the statesman, and the man of letters, with the intrepid resolution and conduct of a general. He found the kingdom in the most miserable condition to which anarchy, domestic barbarism, and foreign hostility, could reduce it: he brought it to a pitch of eminence surpassing in many respects, the situation of its contemporary nations.

9. Alfred divided England into counties, with their subdivisions of hundreds and tithings. The tithing or decennary consisted of ten families, over which presided a tithing-man, or borg-holder (security-man); and ten of these composed the hundred. [Society was charged with its own police.] Every house-holder was answerable for his family, and the tithing-man for all within his tithing. In the decision of differences, the tithing-man had the assistance of the rest of his decennary. An

appeal lay from the decennary to the court of the hundred, which was assembled every four weeks; and the cause was tried by a jury of twelve freeholders, sworn to do impartial justice. An annual meeting of the hundred was held for the regulation of the police of the district. The county-court, superior to that of the hundred, and consisting of all the freeholders, met twice a year, after Michaelmas and Easter, to determine appeals from the hundreds, and settle disputes between the inhabitants of different hundreds. The ultimate appeal from all these courts lay to the king in council; and the frequency of these appeals prompted Alfred to the most extreme circumspection in the appointment of his judges. He composed for the regulation of these courts, and of his kingdom, a body of laws, the basis of the common law of England.

10. Alfred gave every encouragement to the cultivation of letters, as the best means of eradicating barbarism. He invited, from every quarter of Europe, the learned to reside in his dominions, established schools, and is said to have founded the University of Oxford. He was himself a most accomplished scholar for the age in which he lived, as appears from the works he composed; poetical apologues, the translation of the histories of Bede and Orosius, and of Boethius on the Consolation of Philosophy. In every view of his character we must regard Alfred as one of the best and wisest men that ever occupied the regal seat. He died in the vigour of his age, in 901, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years and a-half, in which he had deservedly attained the appellation of Great, and the title of founder of the English monarchy.

11. The admirable institutions of Alfred were partially and feebly enforced under his successors; and England, still a prey to the ravages of the Danes and intestine disorder, relapsed into confusion and barbarism. The reigns of Edward the Elder, the son of Alfred, and of his successors, Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred, were tumultuous and anarchical. In the reign of Edred the celebrated Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, [afterwards primate attempted to reform the church and clergy by enforcing celibacy, and by expelling all the married clergy from canonries and prebends. The monks, in resuming celibacy and the austere life which they had for some time quitted, attracted to themselves an extraordinary veneration, which enabled them] to extend their authority over the throne, and a series of succeeding princes were the obsequious slaves of their tyranny and ambition. Under Ethelred (978—1016), the Danes seriously projected the conquest of England, and, led by Sweyn king of Denmark, and Olave king of Norway, made a formidable descent, won several important battles, and were restrained from the destruction of London only by a dastardly submission, and a promise of tribute to be paid by the inglorious Ethelred, 994. *The English nobility were ashamed of their prince, and seeing no other relief to the kingdom, made a tender of the crown to*

the Danish monarch. On the death of Sweyn, Ethelred attempted to regain his kingdom, but found in Canute, the son of Sweyn, a prince determined to support his claims, which, on the death of Ethelred, were gallantly but ineffectually resisted by his son Edmund Ironside. At length a partition of the kingdom was made between Canute and Edmund, which after a few months the Danes annulled by the murder of Edmund, thus securing to their monarch Canute the throne of all England in 1017. Edmund left two children, Edwin and Edward. Edwin died without issue; but Edward, who married Agatha, daughter of the emperor Henry II., had two children: Edgar Atheling, and Margaret, afterwards queen of Malcolm Canmore, king of Scotland.

12. Canute, the most powerful monarch of his time, sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England, swayed for seventeen years the sceptre of England with a firm and vigorous hand; severe in the beginning of his reign, while his government was insecure, but mild and equitable when possessed of a settled dominion. He left (A. C. 1036) three sons—Sweyn, who was crowned king of Norway, Harold, who succeeded to the throne of England, and Hardicanute, sovereign of Denmark. Harold, a merciless tyrant, died in the fourth year of his reign, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, who, after a violent administration of two years, died in a fit of debauch. The English seized this opportunity of shaking off the Danish yoke; and they conferred the crown on Edward, a younger son of Ethelred, rejecting the preferable right of Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, who, unfortunately for his pretensions, was, at this time, abroad in Hungary. Edward, surnamed the Confessor (A. C. 1041), reigned weakly and ingloriously for twenty-five years, and died without issue in 1066, which terminated the Saxon line of the kings of England. The rebellious attempts of Godwin, earl of Wessex, aimed at nothing less than a usurpation of the crown; and, on his death, his son Harold, cherishing secretly the same views of ambition, had the address to secure to his interest a very formidable party in the kingdom. Edward, to defeat these views, (is said to have) bequeathed the crown to his kinsman William duke of Normandy, a prince whose great abilities and personal prowess had rendered his name illustrious over Europe.

13. On the death of Edward the Confessor (1066) the usurper Harold took possession of the throne, which the intrepid Norman determined immediately to reclaim as his inheritance of right. He made the most formidable preparations, aided in this age of romantic enterprise by many of the sovereign princes, and a vast body of the nobility, from the different continental kingdoms. A Norwegian fleet of 300 sail entered the Humber, and disembarking their troops, were, after one successful engagement, defeated by the English army in the interest of Harold. William landed his army on the coast of Sussex, to the amount of 60,000;

and the English under Harold, flushed with their recent success, hastily advanced to meet him, imprudently resolved to venture all on one decisive battle. The total rout and discomfiture of the English army in the field of Senlac, near Hastings (14th October, 1066), and the death of Harold, after some fruitless attempts of further resistance, put William duke of Normandy in possession of the throne of England.

SECTION XIV.

OF THE GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND MANNERS, OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

1. THE government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons have become the subject of inquiry to modern writers, as being supposed to have had their influence in the formation of the British constitution. The government of the Saxons was the same with that of all the ancient Germanic nations, and they naturally retained in their new settlement in Britain a policy similar to their accustomed usages. Their subordination was chiefly a military one, the king having no more authority than what belonged to the general, or military leader. There was no strict rule of succession to the throne; for although the king was generally chosen from the family of the last prince, the choice usually fell on the person of the best capacity for government. In some instances the destination of the last sovereign regulated the choice. We know very little of the nature of the Anglo-Saxon government, or of the distinct rights of the sovereign and people.

2. One institution common to all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy was the Wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men, whose consent was requisite for enacting laws and ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The bishops and abbots formed a part of this assembly, as did the aldermen, or earls, and governors of counties. The Wites, or wise men, are discriminated from the prelates and nobility, and have by some been supposed to have been the representatives of the commons. But we hear nothing of election or representation in those periods, and we must therefore presume that they were merely landholders, or men of considerable estate, who from their weight and consequence in the country, were held entitled, without any election, to take a share in the public deliberations.

3. The Anglo-Saxon government was extremely aristocratical; the regal authority being very limited, the rights of the people little known or regarded, and the nobility possessing much uncontrolled and lawless rule over their dependants. The offices of government were hereditary in their families, and they commanded the whole military force of their respective provinces.

So strict was the *clientela* between these nobles and their vassals, that the murder of a vassal was compensated by a fine paid to his lord.

4. There were three ranks of the people, the nobles, the free, and the slaves. The nobles were either the king's thanes, who held their lands directly from the sovereign, or lesser thanes, who held lands from the former. One law of Athelstan declared that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account was entitled to the dignity of thane; another decreed the same rank to a ceorle, or husbandman, who was able to purchase five hides* of land, and had a chapel, a kitchen, a hall, and a bell. The ceorles, or freemen of the lower rank, occupied the farms of the thanes, for which they paid rent, and they were removeable at the pleasure of their lord. The slaves or villains were either employed in domestic purposes or in cultivating the lands. A master was fined for the murder of his slave; and if he mutilated him, the slave recovered his freedom.

5. Under this aristocratical government there were some traces of the ancient Germanic democracy. The courts of the decenary, the hundred, and the county, were a considerable restraint on the power of the nobles. In the county-courts the freeholders met twice a year to determine appeals by the majority of suffrages. The alderman presided in those courts, but had no vote: he received a third of the fines, the remaining two-thirds devolving to the king, which was a great part of the royal revenue. Pecuniary fines were the ordinary atonement for every species of crime, and the modes of proof were the ordeal by fire or water, or by compurgators. (See *supra*, Part II. Sect VI. § 7.)

6. As to the military force, the expense of defending the state lay equally on all the land, every five hides (of land) or ploughs being taxed to furnish a soldier. There were 243,600 hides in England, consequently the ordinary military force consisted of 48,720 men.

7. The king's revenue, besides the fines imposed by the courts, consisted partly of his (private) demesnes, and of the public or crown-lands, which were extensive, and partly in imposts on boroughs and sea-ports. The Danegelt was a tax imposed by the states, either for payment of tribute exacted by the Danes, or for defending the kingdom against them. By the custom of gavel-kind, the land was divided equally among all the male children of the deceased proprietor. Bock-land was that which was held by charter, and folc-land (public or state land), what was held by tenants removeable at pleasure.

8. The Anglo-Saxons were behind the Normans in every point of civilization; and the conquest was in some respects to them a real advantage, as it led to material improvement in arts, science, government, and laws; [but to the people it was most disastrous.]

* A hide is supposed to be the quantity that could be tilled with one plough.

SECTION XV.

STATE OF EUROPE DURING THE TENTH, ELEVENTH,
AND TWELFTH CENTURIES.

1. FRANCE, from the extent and splendour of its dominion under Charlemagne, had dwindled to a shadow under his weak posterity. At the end of the Carlovingian period, France comprehended neither Normandy, Dauphine, nor Provence. On the death of Louis V. (the Slothful) the crown ought to have devolved on his uncle, Charles of Brabant, as the last male of the race of Charlemagne; but Hugh Capet, lord of Picardy and Champagne, the most powerful of the French nobles, was elected sovereign by the voice of his brother peers, in 987. The kingdom, torn by parties, suffered much domestic misery under the reign of Hugh, and that of his successor Robert, who was the victim of papal tyranny, for daring to marry a distant cousin without the dispensation of the church.

2. The prevailing passion of the times was pilgrimage and chivalrous enterprise. In this career of adventure the Normans most remarkably distinguished themselves. In 983, they relieved the prince of Salerno, by expelling the Saracens from his territory. They did a similar service to pope Benedict VIII. and the duke of Capua; while another band of their countrymen fought first against the Greeks, and afterwards against the popes, always selling their services to those who best rewarded them. William Guiscard and his brothers, Humphrey, Robert, and Richard, kept the pope a prisoner for a year at Benevento, and forced the court of Rome to yield Capua to Richard, and Apulia and Calabria to Robert, with the investiture of Sicily, if he should gain the country from the Saracens, 1060. In 1101, Roger, one of the twelve brothers, completed the conquest of Sicily, of which the popes continued to be the lords paramount.

3. The north of Europe was in those periods extremely barbarous. Russia received the Christian religion in the eighth century. Sweden, after its conversion in the ninth century, relapsed into idolatry, as did Hungary and Bohemia. The Constantinopolitan empire defended its frontiers with difficulty against the Bulgarians on the west, and against the Turks and Arabians on the east and north.

4. In Italy, excepting the territory of the popedom, the principalities of the independent nobles, and the states of Venice and Genoa, the greatest part of the country was now in the possession of the Normans. Venice and Genoa were rising gradually to great opulence from commerce. Venice was for some ages tributary to the emperors of Germany. In the tenth century its Doge assumed the title of Duke of Dalmatia, of which the

republic had acquired the property by conquest, as well as of Istria, Spalatro, Ragusa, and Narenza.

5. Spain was chiefly possessed by the Moors; the Christians retaining only about a fourth of the kingdom, namely, Asturia, part of Castile and Catalonia, Navarre, and Arragon. Portugal was likewise occupied by the Moors. Their capital was Cordova, the seat of luxury and magnificence. In the tenth century the Moorish dominions were split among a number of petty sovereigns, who were constantly at war with each other: but such, unfortunately, was likewise the situation of the Christian part of the kingdom; and it was no uncommon policy for the Christian princes to form alliances with the Moors against each other. Besides these, the country abounded with independent lords, who made war their profession, and performed the office of champions, in deciding the quarrels of princes, or enlisting themselves in their service, with all their vassals and attendants. Of these termed *Cavalleros andantes*, or knights-errant, the most distinguished was Roderic of Bivar, or *the Cid* (Chief) who undertook for his sovereign, Alphonso II. king of Old Castile, to conquer the kingdom of New Castile, and achieved it with success, obtaining the government of Valencia as the reward of his services. (Toledo taken, 1085.)

6. The contentions between the imperial and papal powers make a distinguished figure in those ages. Henry III. vindicated the imperial right to fill the chair of St. Peter, and nominated three successive popes, Clement II., Damascus II., and Leo IX., without the intervention of a council of the church. But in the minority of his son Henry IV., this right was frequently interrupted, and Alexander II. kept his seat, though the emperor named another in his place. It was the lot of this emperor to experience the utmost extent of papal insolence and tyranny. After a spirited contest with Gregory VII., in which the pope was twice his prisoner, and the emperor as often excommunicated and deposed, Henry fell at length the victim of ecclesiastical vengeance. Urban II., a successor of Gregory, prompted the two sons of Henry to rebel against their father; and his misfortunes were terminated by imprisonment and death in 1106. The same contest went on under a succession of popes and emperors, but ended commonly in favour of the former. The emperor Frederic I. (Barbarossa), a prince of high spirit, after an indignant denial of the supremacy of pope Alexander III., and a refusal of the customary homage, was at length compelled to kiss his feet, and appease his holiness, by a large cession of territory. Pope Celestin III. kicked off the Imperial crown of Henry VI. while doing homage on his knees, but made amends for this insolence by the gift of Naples and Sicily, from which Henry had expelled the Normans. These territories now became an appanage of the empire, 1194.—The succeeding popes rose on the pretensions of their predecessors, till at length Inno-

cent III., in the beginning of the thirteenth century, established the temporal power of the popedom on a settled basis, and obtained a positive acknowledgment of the papal supremacy, or the right *principaliter et finaliter* to confer the Imperial crown. It was the same pope Innocent whom we shall presently see the disposer of the crown of England in the reign of the tyrant John.

SECTION XVI.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE ELEVENTH, TWELFTH, AND PART OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE consequence of the battle of Hastings was the submission of all England to William the Conqueror. The character of this prince was spirited, haughty, and tyrannical, yet not without a portion of the generous affections. [His conduct at first was moderate; though many confiscations took place in order to reward the Norman army, yet the mass of property was left in the hands of its former possessors;] but he afterwards disgusted his English subjects by the strong partiality he showed to his Norman followers, preferring them to all offices of trust and dignity. A conspiracy arose from these discontents, which William defeated, and avenged with signal rigour and cruelty. He determined henceforward to treat the English as a conquered people; a policy which involved his reign in perpetual commotions, which, while they robbed him of all peace of mind, aggravated the tyranny of his disposition. He deprived them of their possessions, [and reduced the great body of the people to vassalage and slavery; he endeavoured to annihilate their laws and customs, and even their language, by ordering that all the public acts and pleadings of the courts should be in the Norman language.] To his own children he owed the severest of his troubles. His eldest son Robert rose in rebellion, to wrest from him the sovereignty of Maine: and his foreign subjects took part with the rebel. William led against them an army of the English, and was on the point of perishing in fight by his son's hand. Philip I. of France had aided this rebellion, which was avenged by William, who carried havoc and devastation into the heart of his kingdom, but was killed in the enterprise by a fall from his horse, in 1087. He bequeathed England to William, his second son; to Robert he left Normandy; and to Henry, his youngest son, the effects of his mother Matilda (5000 lbs. of silver), without any inheritance in territory.

2. William the Conqueror introduced into England the feudal law, dividing the whole kingdom, except the royal demesnes, into

[about 60,000 parcels of nearly equal value, called knights' fees*] bestowing the most of these on his Norman followers, under the tenure of military service, [that is for each knight's fee the service of a soldier on horseback was due when required by the king's summons.]† By the forest laws, he reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of killing game all over the kingdom; a restriction resented by his subjects above every other mark of servitude.‡ Preparatory to the introduction of the feudal tenures, he planned and accomplished a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, with a distinct specification of their extent, nature, value, names of their proprietors, and an enumeration of every class of inhabitants who lived on them, 1086. This most valuable record, called by the Saxons *Dooms-day-book*, or book of the last judgment, is preserved in the English Exchequer, and is now printed.

3. William II. (surnamed Rufus, or the Red, from the colour of his hair) inherited the vices without any of the virtues of his father. His reign is distinguished by no event of importance; and, after the defeat of one conspiracy in its outset, presents nothing but a dull career of unresisted despotism. After a reign of thirteen years, he was killed when hunting, by the random shot of an arrow, in 1100. The crown of England should have devolved on his elder brother Robert; but his absence on the first crusade in Palestine made way for the unopposed succession of his younger brother Henry. [To ingratiate himself with the people and with the nobles, Henry granted a charter which restored many of the Saxon laws, and mitigated those feudal rights claimed by the king over his tenants, and by them over theirs. But nothing did more to establish him on the throne than his marriage with Matilda or Maud, daughter of Malcolm III., king of Scotland, by Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, which united the Saxon with the Norman line, and led the people to hope for a more equal and mild administration for the future.] With the most criminal ambition he then invaded his brother's dominions of Normandy; and Robert, on his return, was defeated in battle, and detained for life a prisoner in England. The crimes of Henry were expiated by his misfortunes. His only son was drowned in his passage from Normandy. His daughter Matilda, married first to the emperor Henry V.,

* Stow states 60,211 to have been the number, and others 60,215, whereof the religious houses, before their suppression, were possessed of 28,015.

† What the extent or annual value of a knight's fee was, is not clear, there being a diversity of opinion on the subject. According to some a knight's fee contained 800 acres; according to others, 680. Lord Coke says, by the act or writ 1. Edward II., 1307, it was measured by the value of £20 per annum, and not by any certain content of acres. Co. Litt. 69. a.

‡ The country between the Tyne and Humber (Yorkshire and Durham) was laid waste and depopulated; and in Hampshire for an extent of thirty miles, the conqueror expelled the inhabitants, seized their property, demolished their houses, and even churches and convents, without compensating the sufferers. The most horrid tyranny and oppression was exercised under colour of forest law. The killing of beasts of chase within the limits of a forest, was as penal as the death of a man, and to be found in them was a punishable crime.

and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou, was destined to be his successor; but the popularity of his nephew Stephen, son of the count of Blois, defeated this intention. Henry I. died in Normandy, after a reign of thirty-five years, in 1135; and in spite of his destination to Matilda, Stephen seized the vacant throne. The party of Matilda, headed by her natural brother, the earl of Gloucester, engaged, defeated, and made Stephen prisoner. Matilda, in her turn, mounted the throne; but, unpopular from the tyranny of her disposition, she was solemnly deposed by the prevailing party of her rival, and Stephen once more restored. He found however, in Henry Plantagenet, the son of Matilda, a more formidable competitor. Of a noble and intrepid spirit, while yet a boy, he resolved to reclaim his hereditary crown; and, landing in England, won by his prowess, and the favour of a just cause, a great part of the kingdom to his interest. By treaty with Stephen, who was allowed to reign for life, he secured the succession at his death, which soon after ensued, (1154).*

4. Henry II. (Plantagenet), a prince in every sense deserving of the throne, began his reign with the reformation of all the abuses of the government of his predecessors; revoking all impolitic grants, abolishing partial immunities, regulating the administration of justice, and establishing the freedom of the towns by charters, which are at this day the basis of national liberty. Happy in the affections of his people, and powerful in the vast extent of additional territory he enjoyed on the continent in the right of his father and of his wife, the heiress of a great portion of France, his reign had every promise of prosperity and happiness; but, from one fatal source, these pleasing prospects were all destroyed. Thomas a Becket was raised by Henry from obscurity to the office of chancellor of England. On the vacancy of the see of Canterbury, the king, desirous of his aid in the correction of ecclesiastical abuses, conferred the primacy on his favourite (1162); and the arrogant Becket availed himself of that authority to abase the prerogative of his sovereign, and exalt the spiritual power above the crown. The clergy had renounced all immediate subordination to the civil magistrate, and it was disputed whether a priest could be tried for a murder, and punished by the civil court. It was determined in the affirmative by the council of Clarendon (1164),† against the opinion of Becket. Pope Alexander III. annulled the decree of the council;

* The Saxon Chronicle gives the following picture of this reign. "The nobles and bishops built castles, and filled them with devilish and wicked men, and oppressed the people, cruelly torturing men for their money. They imposed taxes upon towns, and when they had exhausted them of everything, set them on fire. You might travel a day, and not find one man living in a town, nor any land in cultivation. Never did the country suffer greater evils. If two or three men were seen riding up to a town, all the inhabitants left it, taking them for plunderers. And this lasted, growing worse and worse, throughout Stephen's reign. Men said openly, that Christ and his saints were asleep."

† This council of bishops and barons decided among other things, that the clergy accused of crimes should be judged by the lay courts,—that no harem should be

and Becket, who took part with the pope, was deprived by Henry of his dignities and estates. He retired to France, and avenged himself by the excommunication of the king's ministers; and Henry, in return, prohibited all intercourse with the see of Rome. At length both parties found it their interest to come to a good understanding. Becket was restored to favour, and reinstated in his primacy, when the increasing insolence of his demeanour drew from the king the hasty expression, "Will no one deliver me from an audacious and ungrateful priest," which four knights interpreted into a sentence of proscription, and, trusting that the deed would be grateful to their master, hastened from Normandy to England, and murdered the prelate while in the act of celebrating vespers at the altar in the Cathedral at Canterbury. For this shocking action Henry expressed the regret which he sincerely felt, and the pope indulgently granted his pardon, without requiring the repeal of the Constitutions of Clarendon, on the assurance of his dutiful obedience to the Holy Church.

5. The most important event of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland. The Irish, an early civilised people, and among the first of the nations of the West who embraced the Christian religion, were, by frequent invasions of the Danes, and their own domestic commotions, replunged into barbarism for many ages. In the twelfth century the kingdom consisted of five separate sovereignties, Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Meath, and Connaught; but these were subdivided among an infinite number of petty chiefs, owning a very weak allegiance to their respective sovereigns. Dermot Macmorrogh, expelled from his kingdom of Leinster for a rape on the daughter of the king of Meath, sought protection from Henry, and engaged to become his feudatory, if he should recover his kingdom by the aid of the English. Henry empowered his subjects to invade Ireland; and, while Strongbow earl of Pembroke, and his followers, were laying waste the country, landed in the island himself in 1172, and received the submission of a great number of the independent chiefs. Roderick O'Connor, prince of Connaught, whom the Irish elected nominal sovereign of all the provinces, resisted for three years the arms of Henry, but finally acknowledged his dominion by a solemn embassy to the king at Windsor. The terms of the submission were, an annual tribute of every tenth hide of land, to be applied for the support of government, and an obligation of allegiance to the crown of England; on which conditions the Irish should retain their possessions, and Roderick his kingdom; except the territory of the Pale, or that part which the English barons had subdued before the arrival of Henry.

6. Henry divided Ireland into counties, appointed sheriffs in each, and introduced the laws of England into the territory of

excommunicated without the consent of the king, and that no appeal to the pope, from sentences pronounced in England, should be allowed.

the Pale; the rest of the kingdom being regulated by their ancient laws, till the reign of Edward I., when, at the request of the nation, the English laws were extended to the whole kingdom; and in the first Irish parliament, which was held in the same reign, Sir John Wogan presided as deputy of the sovereign. From that time, for some centuries, there was little intercourse between the kingdoms; nor was the island considered as fully subdued till the reign of Elizabeth, and of her successor James I.

7. The latter part of the reign of Henry II. was clouded by domestic misfortune. His children, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, instigated by their unnatural mother, rose in rebellion, and with the aid of Louis VII., king of France, prepared to dethrone their father. While opposing them with spirit on the Continent, his kingdom was invaded by the Scots under William (the Lion). He hastened back to England, defeated the Scots, and made their king his prisoner. Two of his sons, Henry and Geoffrey, expiated their offences by an early death; but Richard, once reconciled, was again seduced from his allegiance, and, in league with the king of France, plundered his father's Continental dominions. The spirit of Henry was unequal to his domestic misfortunes, and he died of a broken heart in the fifty-eighth year of his age, July 6, 1189, an ornament to the English throne, and a prince surpassing all his contemporaries in the valuable qualities of a sovereign. To him England owed her first permanent improvements in arts, in laws, in government, and in civil liberty.

8. Richard I. (*Cœur de Leon*), on the death of his father, expressed the greatest remorse for his former conduct, and he turned with disgust from those who had encouraged him in his rebellion, and gave his confidence to those faithful ministers who had opposed his ambition. The love of military glory was his ruling passion, and to acquire it, he immediately on his accession set out for the Holy Land, on the third crusade against the Infidels, after plundering his subjects of an immense sum of money to defray the charges of the enterprise. Forming a league with Philip Augustus of France, the two monarchs joined their forces, and, acting for some time in concert, were successful in the taking of Acre or Ptolemais in 1191; but Philip, jealous of his rival's glory, soon returned to France, while Richard had the honour of defeating the heroic Saladin in the battle of Ascalon, with prodigious slaughter of his enemies. He prepared now for the siege of Jerusalem; but, finding his army wasted with famine and fatigue, he was compelled to end the war by a truce with Saladin, in which he obtained a free passage to the Holy Land for every Christian pilgrim. Wrecked in his voyage homeward, and travelling in disguise through Germany, Richard was seized, and detained in prison, by command of the emperor Henry VI. The king of France ungenerously opposed his release,

as did his unnatural brother John, from selfish ambition; but he was at length ransomed by his subjects for the sum of 150,000 marks, and, after an absence of four years, returned to his dominions, 1194. His traitorous brother was pardoned after some submission; and Richard employed the short residue of his reign in a spirited revenge against his rival, Philip. A truce, however, was concluded, by the mediation of Rome; and Richard was soon after killed, while storming the castle of one of his rebellious vassals in the Limosin. He died without issue in the tenth year of his reign, and forty-second of his age, April 6, 1199.

9. John (surnamed Lackland, the landless,) succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother, but found a competitor in his nephew Arthur, Duke of Bretagne, the son of Geoffrey, his elder brother, supported by Philip of France. War was, of course, renewed with that country: but Arthur, with fatal confidence, throwing himself into the hands of his uncle, was removed by poison or the sword; a deed which, joined to the known tyranny of his character, rendered John the detestation of his subjects. He was stripped by Philip of his Continental dominions, and he made the pope his enemy by an avaricious attack on the treasures of the church. After an ineffectual menace of vengeance, Innocent III. pronounced a sentence of interdict against the kingdom, which put a stop to all the ordinances of religion, to baptism, and the burial of the dead. He next excommunicated John, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance; and he finally deposed him, and made a gift of the kingdom to Philip. John, intimidated into submission, declared himself the pope's vassal, swore allegiance on his knees to the papal legate, and agreed to hold his kingdom tributary to the Holy See, 1213. On these conditions, which ensured the universal hatred and contempt of his people, he made his peace with the church. It was natural that his subjects, thus trampled upon and sold, should vindicate their rights. The barons of the kingdom assembled, and binding themselves by oath to an union of measures, they resolutely demanded from the king a ratification of the charter of privileges granted by Henry I. John appealed to the pope, who, in support of his vassal, prohibited the confederacy of the barons as rebellious. These were only the more resolute in their purpose, and the sword was their last resource. At length John was compelled to yield to their demands, and signed at Runymede, between Windsor and Staines, 15th of June, 1215, that solemn charter, which is the foundation and bulwark of English liberty, *Magna Charta*.

10. By this great charter,—1. The freedom of election to benefices was secured to the clergy; 2. The fines to the overlord on the succession of vassals (or tenants) were regulated; 3. No aids or subsidies were allowed to be levied from the subject, unless in a few special cases, without the consent of the great

council; 4. The crown shall not seize the lands of a baron for a debt, while he has personal property sufficient to discharge it; 5. All the privileges granted by the king to his vassals shall be communicated by them to their inferior vassals; 6. One weight and one measure shall be used throughout the kingdom; 7. All men shall pass from and return to the realm at their pleasure; 8. All cities and boroughs shall preserve their ancient liberties; 9. The estate of every freeman (freeholder) shall be regulated by his will, and, if he die intestate, by the law; 10. The king's court shall be stationary, and open to all; 11. Every freeman shall be fined only in proportion to his offence, and no fine shall be imposed to his utter ruin; 12. No peasant (freeman) shall, by a fine be deprived of his instruments of husbandry; 13. No person shall be tried on suspicion alone, but on the evidence of lawful witnesses; 14. No (free) person shall be tried or punished but by the judgment of his peers and the law of the land.

11. John granted at the same time the *Charta de Foresta*, which abolished the royal privilege of killing game over all the kingdom, and restored to the lawful proprietors their woods and forests, which they were now allowed to enclose and use at their pleasure. As compulsion alone had produced these concessions, John was determined to disregard them, and a foreign force was brought into the kingdom to reduce the barons into submission. These applied for aid to France, and Philip sent his son Louis to England with an army; and such was the people's hatred of their sovereign, that they swore allegiance to this foreigner. At this critical period John died at Newark (1216), and an instant change ensued. His son Henry III., a boy of nine years of age, was crowned at Bristol, and his uncle the earl of Pembroke appointed protector of the realm: the disaffected barons returned to their allegiance, the people hailed their sovereign, and Louis with his army, after an ineffectual struggle, made peace with the protector, and evacuated the kingdom.

THE CONDITION OF ENGLAND FROM THE CONQUEST TO THE DEATH OF
KING JOHN, 1066 to 1216.

[THE Norman conquest was a fatal blow to Anglo-Saxon liberty. Doomsday book is an indisputable record of the vast territorial revolution that took place. Before the death of the Conqueror, the whole soil and all that was upon it with few exceptions, had been divided among foreigners, the native population deprived of all civil and political rights, of all offices of honour in the church and state, and reduced to the condition of their vassals, bondmen, and slaves. The name of Englishman became a term of reproach; their language was rejected as barbarous, and the laws were administered in Norman-French. In short the foreign officers and soldiers became the earls, barons, and landholders, the ancestors of the ancient territorial families, and the English the poor, the miserable, and oppressed.

The government established by the Conqueror was a military despotism. And to maintain his conquest, the country was divided into districts which

were occupied by bodies of troops under their respective officers. The commanders becoming the counts or earls of counties; the next in command, the vice-counts, or viscounts; the inferior officers, the barons; and the soldiers, the freeholders of the counties. The Conqueror, the general in chief, retained extensive possessions in his own hands, and divided the remainder of England among his officers, to be governed by them subject to the regulations established by him, called the Feudal system. England was divided into about 60,000 fiefs or knights' fees, or quantities of land allowed for the maintenance of a soldier and his horse, each holder being bound to appear in the field or to send a substitute when called upon. These fiefs were granted by the king to about 700 officers of different ranks, to be held of him during pleasure, and were called his tenants in chief. These retained large possessions in their own hands, and granted to their soldiers fiefs to be held of them, on the same terms of military service and other payments as required by the king of them. What was the precise quantity of land, or the estimated annual value of a knight's fee, is not clear. According to some, it contained 800 acres, according to others, 680. Lord Coke is of opinion that it was to be computed by the quality, and not by the quantity, of the land, which in 1307 was assumed to be of the annual value of £20. But whatever might be the exact value of a knight's fee, he who held a portion of land so denominated, was bound, when called upon, to attend his lord to the wars on horseback, armed as a knight, for forty days in every year, at his own expense; which attendance or service was a part of the rent payable for the land he held. The tenants in chief were the military and civil rulers of their districts or baronies, from which they derived the title of barons, and as they were of the same class as the sovereign, just as a subaltern officer is of his general, they were his peers, and as such entitled to attend the great council of the nation; while the military tenants, who held lands of them, equally free of servile conditions as themselves, were their peers in the courts-baron where they assembled as often as it was held. Such was the principle of government as established by the Conqueror, and which continued in vigour until the time of Magna Charta. For a long time after the conquest, lands were only granted to be held at the pleasure of the sovereign, but they came to be claimed hereditarily, which the Great Charter guaranteed, subject to the customary feudal obligations.

As it is important to know the conditions on which about sixty thousand persons acquired the whole property of the kingdom, except what remained in the hands of the crown, they may be stated to have been subjected to forfeiture in addition to the military service referred to, if withheld.

1. AID:—1st. To ransom the sovereign if taken prisoner; 2dly, To make his eldest son a knight; 3dly. To give a suitable portion to his eldest daughter on her marriage.

2. RELIEF:—Which consisted of a fine or composition paid to the sovereign by the heir, when of full age, for permission to take up the estate of his ancestor. In the time of Henry II. this relief was 100 shillings for each knight's fee, or one fourth or more of the annual value.

3. PRIMER SEISIN:—Which gave the sovereign the right to one whole year's profits of the lands from the heir in addition to the relief, if the lands were in immediate possession; and half a year's profit, if the lands were in reversion expectant on an estate for life.

4. WARDSHIP:—Which gave the sovereign the wardship of the heir, without being accountable for the profits, till the age of 21 in males, and 16 in females. Then the heir or heiress was obliged to pay half a year's profits of the land by way of fine to be put in possession. This incident was a source of considerable revenue and patronage to the sovereign.

5. MARITAGIUM:—Which gave the sovereign the right of disposing of his infant ward in marriage; that was, of tendering him or her, while in ward, a suitable match; which if the wards refused, they forfeited to their guardian the value of the marriage, or what would have been *bona fide* given to him

for such an alliance, as a jury should determine: and if the wards, after refusal of a suitable marriage, married without the consent of their guardian, then they forfeited double the value of the marriage. This incident was a source of considerable revenue.

6. **FINES FOR ALIENATION:**—These were often arbitrary, and unsettled until the statute 1. Edward III., c. 12, fixed them at one third of the annual value, with a license; and a full year's value without permission to alienate.

7. **ESCHEAT:**—When the tenant died without heirs of his blood, the lands reverted to the sovereign; or when the tenant was convicted of treason or felony.

Such were the original conditions upon which lands were held, the profits arising therefrom constituting the principal part of the public revenue, in addition to the profits of the crown lands, until the Restoration of Charles II. in 1660, when they were taken away without lands being charged with an equivalent.

For a long time after the conquest, the mass of the English people were held in a state of servitude. Only the tenants in chief and their military vassals were in the enjoyment of civil and political rights. The inhabitants of towns, in the demesnes of the sovereign or the barons, were at first in the nature of property, but they came to obtain from the sovereign charters of privilege, and afterwards from the barons. The country population were divided into Sockmen, Villeins regardant, and Villeins in gross. The Sockmen were the better class of Englishmen who had obtained small grants of land either out of compassion, on payment of a fixed sum of money, or on condition of performing some fixed servile employment to their superior lords. These were allowed to possess private property. The villeins regardant were those who cultivated the land and were permanently attached to manors, and bound to perform the most servile offices of agricultural labour for the benefit of the lords of manors. During the period from the conquest to the death of John, their labour was unlimited both with regard to its severity and duration, and they were not allowed to possess private property. The villeins in gross were those principally employed in menial services in the houses of the lords of manors. They were at the absolute disposal of their lords, and were transferred by deed, sale or conveyance, from one owner to another. Their exportation was not prohibited until the reign of Henry I., 1102. It was not until the reign of Richard I. that the English people began to escape from the servitude to which they had been reduced. The chivalrous character of that prince induced the barons to dispose of their lands, and to give a fixed tenure for small sums of money, to enable them to accompany him in the third crusade. Fee, or free farms were in that way obtained, which led to the formation of a middle class, the yeomanry of the next period of our history.

The contest between the barons and king John did not arise from any desire in the former to extend the liberties of the English people, but to obtain a confirmation of the privilege which they claimed and a hereditary succession in their families to their lands and dignities. By that time they considered themselves the hereditary owners of the estates which had been granted to be held at the pleasure of the sovereign. And as the Saxon laws of Edward the Confessor, at once preserved all that was due to the tenant with the requisite powers to the lord of the fee, the Anglo Norman barons became as clamorous for their adoption as the English had been from the conquest. John drove them into rebellion through his favour to Poitevians and other foreigners, among whom he distributed the principal offices and fiefs that were held of him, and even dispossessed many of the Normans, to provide for them. He also married them to those heiresses of whom he had become guardian, according to the feudal law; and gave to them, under the title of guardians, the management and receivership of the estates

of miners and orphans. These foreigners, in their desire to acquire wealth, were more rapacious in the exaction of rents and fines on their domains, than the Anglo-Norman barons, who had become naturalized. Thus they agitated at the same time, and almost in an equal degree, the two races of men inhabiting England: the Anglo-Norman landholders, who spoke Norman-French, and the mass of the people, who spoke English, who until then had had no sympathy or aversion in common. The English people were not entirely forgotten in the provisions of Magna Charta, but they were benefited rather indirectly than directly. The recognition of the Saxon common law having arisen out of it, which afterwards facilitated their acquiring civil and political rights. By one of the articles of the Great Charter, the foreigners that had been enriched by king John were sent out of the kingdom, which the country people zealously assisted in enforcing. From hence may be dated the birth of a new national spirit, common to all men born on the English soil; but it was not until more than a century after the death of John that any considerable number of the rural population had become freemen.]

SECTION XVII.

THE CRUSADES, OR HOLY WARS.

1. At the time of the first crusade, in the end of the eleventh century, Arabia, Persia, and the greater portion of Lesser Asia were in the possession of the Mohammedans. The Eastern Empire, thus abridged of its Asiatic territory, had also lost a great part of its dominions in Europe. It retained, however, Greece, Macedonia, Thrace, and Illyria; and Constantinople itself was populous, opulent, and luxurious. Palestine had been in the possession of the Mussulmans (true believers) since 637; and its capital, Jerusalem, fallen from its ancient consequence and splendour, was yet held in respect by its conquerors as a holy city, and constantly attracted the resort of Mohammedans to the mosque of Omar, as of Christian pilgrims to the sepulchre of our Saviour. [So long as the Caliphs of Bagdad and Egypt were the rulers of Palestine, they protected the Christian pilgrims that resorted to Jerusalem, on payment of a tax; but when the Seljukian Turks superseded them, the pilgrims were exposed to every kind of insult and oppression.]

2. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, on his return from this pilgrimage, complained in loud terms of the grievances which the Christians suffered from the Turks; and Urban II. pitched on this enthusiast as a fit person to commence the execution of a grand design which the popes had long entertained, of arming all Christendom, and exterminating the Infidels from the Holy Land. The project was opened in two general councils held at Placentia in Lombardy, and Clermont in Auvergne, 1095. The French possessed more ardour than the Italians; and an immense multitude of ambitious and disorderly nobles, with all their dependants, eager for enterprise and plunder, and assured of eternal salvation, immediately took the cross. Peter the

Hermit led 80,000 under his banners, and they began their march towards the East in 1095. Their progress was marked by rapine and hostility in every Christian country through which they passed; and the army of the Hermit, on its arrival at Constantinople, was wasted down to 20,000. The emperor Alexius Comnenus, to whom the Crusaders behaved with the most provoking insolence and folly, conducted himself with admirable moderation and good sense. He hastened to get rid of this disorderly multitude, by furnishing them with every aid which they required, and cheerfully lent his ships to transport them across the Bosphorus. The Sultan Solyman (of Roum) met them on the plain of Nice, and cut to pieces the army of the Hermit. A new host in the meantime arrived at Constantinople, led by more illustrious commanders: 1. Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Brabant; 2. Raymond, count of Thoulouse; 3. Robert of Normandy, son of William king of England; 4. Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the conqueror of Sicily; 5. Hugh, count of Vermandois; 6. Robert, count of Flanders; 7. Stephen, count of Chartres, and other princes of high reputation. To these, who amounted to some (six) hundred thousand, Alexius manifested the same prudent conduct, to accelerate their departure. The Turks,* overpowered by numbers, were twice defeated, and the crusaders pursuing their successes, penetrated at length to Jerusalem, which, after a siege of six weeks, they took by storm, and with savage fury massacred the whole of its Mahometan and Jewish inhabitants, 1099. Godfrey was hailed king of Jerusalem, but was obliged soon after to cede his kingdom to the pope's legate. The crusaders divided Syria and Palestine, and formed four separate states, which weakened their power, (Jerusalem, Antioch, Tripoli, and Edessa beyond the Euphrates.) The Turks began to recover strength; and the Christian states of Asia soon found it necessary to solicit aid from Europe.

3. The second crusade set out from the West in 1146, to the amount of 200,000 French, Germans, and Italians, led by Hugh, brother to Philip I. of France. These met with the same fate which attended the army of Peter the Hermit. The garrison of Jerusalem was at this time so weak, that it became necessary to embody and arm the monks for its defence, and hence arose the military orders of the Knights Templars and Hospitallers, and soon after the Teutonic, from the German pilgrims. Meantime pope Eugenius III. employed St. Bernard to preach up a new crusade in France, which was headed by its sovereign Louis VII. (the Young), who in conjunction with Conrad III. emperor of Germany, mustered jointly 300,000 men. The Ger-

* The powerful empire of the Seljukian Turks had some years before been divided into three kingdoms under separate sultans, Arabia, Persia, and Roum, or Rome; which comprehended Asia Minor. It was with the sultan of the latter kingdom the crusaders first contended, who being unsupported by the other sultans, was unable to resist them.

mans were cut to pieces by the sultan of Iconium (*Roum*) in 1146; the French were totally defeated near Laodicea in 1147; and the two monarchs, after much disaster, returned with shame to their dominions.

4. The illustrious Saladin, nephew of the sultan of Egypt, formed the design of recovering Palestine from the Christians; and besieging Jerusalem, he took the city, and made prisoner its sovereign, Guy of Lusignan, 1187. Pope Clement III. alarmed at the successes of the Infidels, began to stir up a new crusade, from France, England, and Germany; and the armies of each country were headed by their respective sovereigns, Philip Augustus; Richard I., Cœur-de-Lion; and Frederick I., Barbarossa. In this third crusade, the emperor Frederick died in Asia, and his army, by repeated defeats, mouldered to nothing. The English and French were more successful; they besieged and took Ptolemais (Acre); but Richard and Philip quarrelled from jealousy of each other's glory, and the French monarch returned in disgust to his country. Richard nobly sustained the contest with Saladin, whom he defeated near Ascalon; but his army was reduced by famine and fatigue; and concluding a treaty, at least not dishonourable, with his enemy, he was forced at length to escape from Palestine with a single ship. (See *supra*, Sect. XVI. § 8.) Saladin, revered even by the Christians, died 1195.

5. A fourth crusade, undertaken at the pressing instigation of Pope Innocent III., was fitted out in 1202, under Baldwin count of Flanders, of which the object was not the extirpation of the Infidels, but the destruction of the Empire of the East. Constantinople, embroiled by civil war and revolution, from disputed claims to the sovereignty, was besieged and taken by the crusaders; and Baldwin their chief was elected emperor, to be within a few months dethroned and murdered by the Bulgarians. Five Latin emperors succeeded Baldwin until 1261, when Constantinople was retaken by the Greek emperors. The imperial dominions were shared among the principal leaders; and the Venetians, who had lent their ships for the expedition, got the isle of Candia (anciently Crete) for their reward. Alexius, of the imperial family of the Comneni, founded a new sovereignty in Asia, which he termed the empire of Trebizond. [The fifth crusade 1217 was conducted by Andrew II., king of Hungary, and landed in Egypt, but was fruitless. The emperor Frederick II. undertook the sixth crusade in 1228, and procured the restitution of Jerusalem and other cities from the Turks, but the Christian princes were unable long to defend them.]

6. At this period, 1227, a great revolution took place in Asia. Gengiskan with his Tartars broke down from the north upon Persia and Syria, and massacred indiscriminately Turks, Jews, and Christians, who opposed them. The Christian Knights Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic, made a desperate but in-

effectual resistance,* and Palestine must have been abandoned to these invaders, had not its fate been for a while retarded by the last crusade (the seventh) under Louis IX. (the Saint) of France. This prince, summoned, as he believed by Heaven, after four years' preparation, set out for the Holy Land, with his queen, his three brothers, and all the knights of France, 1248. His army began their enterprise by an attack on Egypt, where, after some considerable successes, they were at length utterly defeated, and the French monarch, with two of his brothers, fell into the hands of the enemy. He purchased his liberty at an immense ransom (400,000 livres,) and, returning to France, reigned prosperously and wisely for thirteen years. But the same frenzy again assailing him, he embarked on a crusade against the Moors in Africa, where his army was destroyed by a pestilence, and he himself became its victim (in 1270). It is computed that, in the whole of the crusades to Palestine, two millions of Europeans were buried in the East.

7. *Effects of the Crusades.* One consequence of the holy wars is supposed to have been the improvement of European manners; but the times immediately succeeding the crusades exhibit no such actual improvement. Two centuries of barbarism and darkness elapsed between the termination of those enterprises and the fall of the Greek empire in 1453, the era of the revival of letters, and the commencement of civilization. A certain consequence of the crusades was the change of territorial property in all the feudal kingdoms, the sale of the estates of the nobles, and their division among a number of smaller proprietors. Hence the feudal aristocracy was weakened, and the lower classes began to acquire weight and a spirit of independence. The towns hitherto bound by a sort of vassalage to the nobles, began to purchase their immunity, acquired the right of electing their own magistrates, and were governed by their own municipal laws.—The church in some respects gained, and in others lost, by those enterprises. The popes gained a more extended jurisdiction; but the fatal issue of these expeditions opened the eyes of the world to the selfish and interested motives which had prompted them, and weakened the sway of superstition. Many of the religious orders acquired an increase of wealth; but this was balanced by the taxes imposed on the clergy. The coin was altered and debased in most of the kingdoms of Europe, from the scarcity of specie. The Jews were supposed to have hoarded and concealed it, and they became hence the victims of general persecution. The most substantial gainers by the crusades were the Italian states of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, from the increased

* The Religious and Military orders were established for the purpose of defending the new Christian States in the East, for protecting pilgrims on their journey, taking care of them when sick, &c., and the vast wealth which they acquired in most of the kingdoms of Europe, preserved their existence long after the loss of the Holy Land; and some of these orders even made a conspicuous figure in the political history of the Western nations.

trade to the Levant for the supply of those immense armies. Venice, as we have seen, took an active concern, and obtained her share of the conquered territory.

The age of the crusades brought chivalry to its perfection, and gave rise to romantic fiction.

THE EFFECT OF THE CRUSADES ON THE SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITION OF ENGLAND.

[The Crusades had the effect of improving the social and political condition of England. Richard I. (Cœur de Lion), to defray the expenses of his expedition to the Holy Land, sold the crown lands, his castles, and the towns built on his demesnes. The Saxon inhabitants of many of the towns redeemed their houses, and once more became, under a crown and quit rent, the legal proprietors of their abode. By the simple fact of such a bargain, the town which concluded it became a corporation, organized under magistrates, responsible to the king for the payment of the municipal debt, and to the burgesses for the disposal of the sums raised by their personal contributions. Many barons and knights followed the example of the king. They sold the whole or portions of their lands, or gave perpetual leases of the farms at fixed rents occupied by their villains regardant or bondmen, for whatever sums of money they could obtain from them. These were the free or fee-farms which at one time were so numerous in the ancient cultivated districts of England. A fixity of tenure having been acquired, an impulse was given to industry which rapidly led to the formation of a middle class of society.

On the return of Richard from the Holy Land and his captivity in Germany, he annulled all the sales of royal domains which he had so freely made before his departure, pretending that they were merely mortgages, and that the occupiers had been sufficiently reimbursed. The barons and knights, however, were not allowed to act in a similar manner. But so early as 1224, the ninth of Henry III., or thirty-five years after the departure of Richard I. for Palestine, they became so alarmed at the improvement going on in the social condition of the small Saxon landholders, that they considered it one of those grievances they ought to provide against. Accordingly in the third great charter, obtained from Henry III. before he was of age, it was provided "that no freeman shall from henceforth give or sell any more of his land, but so that of the residue of his lands the lord of the fee may have the service due him which belongeth to him:" Cap. 32. And still further to prevent the sub-division of land, the great barons obtained from Edward I., in 1285, the celebrated statute *de donis conditionalibus*, which has been sarcastically called "the statute of great men," its object being to perpetuate in their families their remaining possessions. The evil effects of that statute were soon evident, which led Edward I. to favour its evasion and to extend the privileges of the people by the exercise of the prerogative and his courts of law. The demand for labour, which followed the establishment of a fixity of tenure, led to the custom of allowing the villains (or manorial bondmen) to work as hired labourers, on condition of performing their stated services to their lord. And to prevent disputes those services came to be entered in the books of the manors, and copies in writing given to the villains. This custom having been established, the common law determined that the villain, so long as the customary services were performed, had a right to hold his lands "in spite of any determination of the lord's will:" 2 Blackstone, 95. In that way another numerous class of free husbandmen, called copyholders, from the condition of their tenures, were enfranchised. The interest of the barons and lords of manors being

affected by that decision of the king's courts of law, the statute *quia emptores* was obtained in 18 Edward I. 1289, to prevent tenants of common lords from claiming that right for the future. There is reason to believe that in 1289 the number of small freeholders and copyholders was very numerous, so that by the middle of the fourteenth century the great body of the rural population had become free labourers. From that time the Saxon population of England rapidly advanced to the position in which it is at the present day.]

SECTION XVIII.

OF CHIVALRY AND ROMANCE.

1. CHIVALRY arose naturally from the condition of society in those ages in which it prevailed. Among the Germanic nations, the profession of arms was esteemed the sole employment that deserved the name of manly or honourable. The initiation of the youth to this profession was attended with peculiar solemnity and appropriate ceremonies. The chief of the tribe bestowed the sword and armour on his vassals, as a symbol of their being devoted to his service. In the progress of the feudal system, these vassals, in imitation of their chief, assumed the power of conferring arms on their sub-vassals, with a similar form of mysterious and pompous ceremonial. The candidate for knighthood underwent his preparatory fasts and vigils, and received on his knees the *accolade* and benediction of his chief. Armed and caparisoned, he sallied forth in quest of adventure, which, whether just or not in its purpose, was ever esteemed honourable in proportion as it was perilous.

2. The high esteem of the female sex is characteristic of the Gothic manners. In those ages of barbarism, the castles of the great barons were in miniature the courts of sovereigns. The society of the ladies, who found only in such fortresses a security from outrage, polished the manners; and to protect the chastity and honour of the fair, was the best employ and highest merit of an accomplished knight. Romantic exploit had, therefore, always a tincture of gallantry:—

It hath been through all ages ever seen,
That with the praise of arms and chivalry
The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
And that for reason's special privy;
For either doth on other much rely;
For he, me seems, most fit the fair to serve,
That can her best defend from villany;
And she most fit his service doth deserve,
That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.

Spenser's Faery Queen.

3. To the passion for adventure and romantic love were added very high ideas of morality and religion; but, as the latter were ever subordinate to the former, we may presume more in favour

of their refinement than of their purity. It was the pride of a knight to redress wrongs and injuries; but in that honourable employment he made small account of those he committed; and it was easy to expiate the greatest offences by a penance or a pilgrimage, which furnished only a new opportunity for adventurous exploit.

4. Chivalry, whether it began with the Moors or Normans, attained its perfection at the period of the crusades, which presented a noble object of adventure, and a boundless field for military glory. Few, it is true, returned from those desperate enterprises, but those few had a high reward in the admiration of their countrymen. The bards and romancers sung their praises, and recorded their exploits, with a thousand circumstances of fabulous embellishment.

5. The earliest of the old romances (so termed from the Romance language, a mixture of the Frank and Latin, in which they were written) appeared about the middle of the twelfth century, the period of the second crusade. But those more ancient compositions did not record contemporary events, whose known truth would have precluded all liberty of fiction or exaggeration. Geoffrey of Monmouth, and the author who assumed the name of Archbishop Turpin, had free scope to their fancy, by celebrating the deeds of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, and the exploits of Charlemagne and his Twelve Peers; and from the fruitful stock of those first romances sprung a numerous offspring, equally wild and extravagant.

6. Philosophers have analyzed the pleasure arising from works of fiction, and have endeavoured, by various hypotheses, to account for the interest we take in the description of an event or scene which we know to be utterly impossible. We may account thus simply for the phenomenon: Every narration is in some degree attended with a dramatic deception. We enter for the time into the situation of the persons concerned. Adopting their passions and their feelings, we lose for a moment all sense of the absurdity of their cause, whilst we see the agents themselves hold it for reasonable and adequate. The most incredulous sceptic may sympathize strongly with the feelings of Hamlet at the sight of his father's spectre.

7. Thus powerfully affected as we are by sympathy, even against the conviction of our reason, how much greater must have been the effect of such works of the imagination in those days, when popular superstition gave full credit to the reality, or at least the possibility of all that they described! And hence we must censure, as both unnecessary and improbable, that theory of Dr. Hurd, which accounts for all the wildness of the old romances, on the supposition that their fictions were entirely allegorical; which explains the giants and savages into the oppressive feudal lords and their barbarous dependants; as M. Mallet construes the serpents and dragons which guarded the

enchanted castles, into their winding walls, fossés, and battlements. It were sufficient to say, that many of those old romances are inexplicable by allegory. They were received by the popular belief as truths, and even their contrivers believed in the possibility of the scenes and actions they described. In latter ages, and in the wane of superstition, yet while it still retained a powerful influence, the poets adopted allegory as a vehicle of moral instruction: and to this period belong those poetical romances which bear an allegorical explanation; as the *Faery Queen* of Spenser, the *Orlando* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberato* of Tasso.

8. In more modern times the taste for romantic composition declined with popular credulity; and the fastidiousness of philosophy affected to treat all supernatural fiction with contempt. But it was at length perceived that this refinement had cut off a source of very high mental enjoyment. The public taste now took a new turn; and this moral revolution is at present tending to its extreme. We are gone back to the nursery to listen to tales of hobgoblins; a change which we may safely prognosticate can be of no long duration.

SECTION XIX.

STATE OF EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. [CONSTANTINOPLE taken, as we have seen, by the crusaders in 1202, was governed by Latin emperors for sixty years, when it was recovered by Michael Palæologus, a Greek noble, raised to the throne of Nice during the minority of John Lascaris, whom he afterwards blinded and banished. In the reign of his son Andronius, the famous Othman forced the passes of Mount Olympus, and founded the Ottoman Turkish empire, 1299. The contentions and civil wars of the Greeks favoured the final subversion of the empire. Orkhan, the son of Othman, conquered Bithynia, Nicomedia, and Gallipoli, and established the Turkish power in Europe, 1353. His son Amurath subdued Adrianople in 1360, which he made his capital. He organized the regular troops called Janizaries, selected from the European captives, and subdued Thrace, Macedonia, and fell in the battle of Cossova, which was fatal to the independence of the Servians and other Solavonian tribes, 1389. His son and successor, the renowned Bajazet I., united the Turkish sovereignty in Asia Minor, and established his power from Bouras to Adrianople, and from the Danube to the Euphrates. He conquered Macedonia and Thessaly, and penetrated into Greece. He then turned his arms against Hungary, and defeated the Hungarians, Wallachians, Ger-

mans, and French, in the great battle of Nicopolis in 1396. The empire of Constantinople was then comprised within its walls, which were invested by sea and land, and must inevitably have been overthrown had not Bajazet been called away to oppose a savage more powerful than himself. The invasion of Syria by Tamerlane delayed the fall of Constantinople and the extinction of the Eastern Empire for fifty-three years.]

2. [The death of the emperor Henry VI. of Germany, in 1198, was followed by a general war throughout the empire. The Italian cities, whose right to self-government and the administration of their own finances, by the treaty of Constance, (1183) were involved in the contest of the rival factions, known by the name of Guelphs and Ghibilines, which ended in the loss of liberty to the greater number of these communities. The Guelphs were the partisans of the popes, and the Ghibilines of the emperors, the former elected Otho IV., duke of Bavaria and Saxony, king of the Romans; and the latter, Philip I., duke of Swabia, and brother of Henry VI. The contest between them was prolonged to 1212, when Philip was assassinated. Otho was then acknowledged by the Germans, and passed into Italy to receive the imperial crown from pope Innocent III. But desirous of retaining the imperial prerogatives, he offended the pope, who, rather than abate any of his pretensions, raised against the Guelph emperor the heir of the Ghibiline house, Frederick II. grandson of Frederick I. (Barbarossa), hardly eighteen years of age, and till then reigning under the pope's tutelage over the Two Sicilies. The civil war continued until the death of Otho in 1218, when no attempt was made to despoil his rival of his hereditary possessions. The death of pope Innocent III., two years before, broke the unnatural alliance between the Ghibiline emperor and the pope, which involved him in contention with them during his life]. His opposition to four successive popes was avenged by excommunication and deposition; yet he kept possession of his throne, and vindicated his authority with great spirit. Frequent attempts were made against his life, by assassination and poison, which he openly attributed to papal resentment. On his death (1250), the splendour of the empire was for many years obscured. [His son Conrad IV., king of Germany, did not feel himself sufficiently strong to appear in Italy, and embarked in Istria for Naples, that he might secure that kingdom, 1251. The reign of his life was passed in subduing the Neapolitan princes. After his death in 1254], the empire was a prey to rival factions and civil war, the fruit of contested claims of the popes, yet the popes gained nothing by its disorders; for the troubles of Italy were equally hostile to their ambition. The turbulent state of England; France was weak and anarchical; Spain ravaged by the contests of Christians. Yet, distracted as appears the pope, the crusades gave a species of union to this

discordant mass. [Manfred, the natural brother of Conrad IV., succeeded by his courage and activity in recovering the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which pope Innocent IV. had invaded with the view of annexing it to the temporal power of the Holy See. The successors of Innocent, uneasy at the growing power of the Ghibiline party and the establishment of their power in the Two Sicilies under the heroic Manfred, gave the investiture of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France, who appeared at the head of a numerous army, defeated and killed Manfred in the bloody battle of Benevento in 1266, and treated the inhabitants with great cruelty.] The Sicilians revenged this act of usurpation and cruelty by the murder, in one night, of every Frenchman in the island. This shocking massacre, termed the *Sicilian Vespers*, happened on Easter Sunday, 1282. It was followed by every evil that comes in the train of civil war and revolution.

3. The beginning of the thirteenth century had been signalized by a new species of crusade. The Albigenses, inhabitants of Alby in the Pays de Vaud, were bold enough to dispute many of the tenets of the Catholic church, as judging them contrary to the doctrines of Scripture. Innocent III. established a holy commission at Thoulouse, with power to try and punish these heretics. The Count of Thoulouse opposed this persecution, and was for the punishment of his offence compelled by the pope to assist in a crusade against his own vassals. The famous Simon de Montfort was the leader of this *pious* enterprise, which was marked by the most atrocious cruelties, and thousands of the Albigenses were burned or massacred without mercy. The benefits of the holy commission were judged by the popes to be so great, that it became from that time a permanent establishment, known by the name of *the Inquisition*.

4. The rise of the house of Austria may be dated from 1273, when Rodolph Count of Hapsburg, a prince of very ancient family and of considerable possessions, as well in Switzerland as upon each bank of the Upper Rhine, was elected emperor of Germany. He owed his elevation to the jealousies of the electoral princes, who could not agree in the choice of any one of themselves. Ottocar II., king of Bohemia, to whom Rodolph had been steward of the household, could ill brook the supremacy of his former dependant; and refusing him the customary homage for his Germanic possessions, Rodolph stripped him of Austria, which, as a vacant fief, he conferred with the consent of the diet upon his son Albert in 1283. These provinces remaining ever since in the family of its conquerors.

5. The Italian states of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, were at this time flourishing and opulent, while most of the kingdoms of Europe (if we except England under Edward I.) were exhausted, feeble, and disorderly. A dawning of civil liberty began to appear in France under Philip IV. (the Fair), who summoned

the deputies of towns as a third estate to the national assemblies, which had hitherto consisted of the nobility and clergy, 1302. It was the same prince who established perpetual courts of judicature in France, under the name of parliaments. Over these the parliament of Paris possessed a jurisdiction by appeal; but it was not till later times that it assumed any authority in matters of state.

6. The parliament of England had before this era begun to assume its present constitution. The Commons, or the representatives of counties and boroughs, were first called to parliament by Henry III.; before that time, this assembly consisted only of the greater barons and clergy. But of the rise and progress of the constitution of England we shall afterwards treat more particularly in a separate section.

7. The spirit of the popedom, zealous in the maintenance and extension of its prerogatives, continued much the same in the thirteenth and the fourteenth, as we have seen it in the three preceding centuries. Philip the Fair had subjected his clergy to bear their share of the public taxes, and prohibited all contributions to be levied by the pope in his dominions. This double offence was highly resented by Boniface VIII., who expressed his indignation by a sentence of excommunication and interdict, and a solemn transference of the kingdom of France to the emperor Albert. Philip, in revenge, sent his general Nogaret to Rome, who threw the pope into prison. The French however, were overpowered by the papal troops; and the death of Boniface put an end to the quarrel.

8. It is less easy to justify the conduct of Philip the Fair to the Knights Templars than his behaviour to pope Boniface. The whole of this order had incurred his resentment, from suspicion of harbouring treasonable designs, but principally on account of their great wealth and the irregularity of their lives. He had influence with pope Clement V. to procure a papal bull, warranting their extirpation from all the Christian kingdoms: and this infamous proscription was carried into effect all over Europe. These unfortunate men were solemnly tried, not for their real offence, but for pretended impieties and idolatrous practices, and many of them were committed to the flames, 1309—1312.

SECTION XX.

REVOLUTION OF SWITZERLAND, 1308 TO 1415.

1. THE beginning of the fourteenth century was distinguished by the revolution of Switzerland, and the rise of the Helvetic republic. [It had been dependent on the kingdom of Burgundy until 1218, when it became a province of the empire. It was

divided into a number of petty states, both secular and ecclesiastical: as those of the Bishop of Basle, the Abbé of St Gall, the counts of Hapsburg, Toggenburg, Savoy, Neufchatel, &c. The towns of Zurich, Soleure, Basle, Berne, and others, had the rank of free and imperial cities. A part of the inhabitants of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwald, held immediately of the empire, and were governed by their own magistrates, under the title of Cantons. These were placed by the emperor under the jurisdiction of governors, who exercised in his name and that of the empire, the power of the sword in all these countries. Such was the constitution of Switzerland, when the emperor Albert, the son and successor of Rodolph of Hapsburg, a tyrannical prince, formed the design of annexing the whole of the provinces to his dominion, and erecting them into a principality for one of his sons. The cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwald, which had always resisted the authority of Austria, combined to assert their freedom in 1308. The governors were expelled, and their castles razed to the ground.* Deputies from the three cantons then assembled, and entered into a league for the maintenance of their liberties and privileges; reserving, however, to the empire its proper rights, as also of the superiors, whether lay or ecclesiastical. The assassination of the emperor Albert in the year of the revolt (1308) and the election of the emperor Henry VII. of Luxemburg, who was jealous of the Austrian family, and not displeased at proceedings which had been accompanied with so little violence or disrespect to the empire, gave the Swiss leisure to consolidate their union. But Leopold, duke of Austria, resolved to humble the peasants who had renounced the authority of his father, led a considerable force into the country. The Swiss determined to perish rather than again submit to the yoke. They kept to the rocky and inaccessible parts of the country, and with a force of 1300 infantry defeated 20,000 Austrian cavalry in the pass of Morgarten, on the borders of the canton of Schwitz, 1315. This great victory, the first modern instance of the superiority of infantry over cavalry, confirmed the independence of the three original cantons.] The rest of the cantons by degrees joined the association, and with invincible perseverance, after fighting sixty pitched battles with their enemies, they won and secured their dear-bought liberty, 1318.

* The governors, in accordance with their instructions, are said to have made gradual encroachments on the privileges of the people, to accustom them to submit to their authority, and at last to have plundered, taxed, fined, imprisoned, and even put to death without form of law. The governor of Uri fixed his hat upon a pole in the market-place, with a strict injunction that all who passed should render obeisance to this symbol of dignity. The celebrated William Tell, for refusing to pay homage to the hat, was condemned to be hanged; but was promised a pardon on condition that he hit with an arrow an apple placed upon his son's head. He fortunately struck off the apple; but had reserved a second arrow for the governor, in case he had killed his son. This inhuman act of tyranny was the immediate cause of the insurrection of the people, and the demolition of all the fortresses in the province. It is important to remark that there is no instance in history of a general insurrection of the people against their governors without long endured oppression and provocation.

2. [The Swiss acted with great moderation towards the nobles whom they overcame, admitting them to the franchises of their community as co-burghers, uniformly respecting the rights of property, and obtaining from the owners many feudal superiorities through purchase or mortgage. But their situation, however, could not fail to be embarrassing so long as the Austrian dukes retained their vast possessions in the very centre of the country. The proscription or outlawry, which the emperor Sigismund and the council of Constance issued against Frederick duke of Austria, in 1415, as an adherent of pope John XXIII., at length furnished the Swiss with a favourable occasion for depriving the house of Austria of all its possessions.]

3. *Constitution of Switzerland.*—The thirteen cantons were united by a solemn treaty, which stipulated the proportional succours to be furnished by each in the case of foreign hostility, and the measures to be followed for securing the union of the states and accommodating domestic differences. With respect to its internal government and economy, each canton was independent. Of some, the constitution was monarchical, and of others republican. All matters touching the general league were transacted either by letters sent to Zurich, and thence officially circulated to all the cantons, or by conferences. The general diet, where two deputies attended from each canton, was held once a year, the first deputy of Zurich presiding. The Catholic and Protestant cantons likewise held their separate diets on occasional emergencies.

4. The Swiss, when at peace, employed their troops for hire in foreign service, judging it a wise policy to keep alive the military spirit of the nation; and the armies thus employed have been equally distinguished for their courage and fidelity. The industry and economy of the Swiss are proverbial; and their country supports a most abundant population, from the zealous promotion of agriculture and manufactures, [and by imposing no restriction on the import or export of commodities—free trade being the policy of its government.]

SECTION XXI.

STATE OF EUROPE (CONTINUED) IN THE THIRTEENTH, FOURTEENTH, AND PART OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE rival claims of superiority between the Popes and Emperors still continued. Henry VII. of Luxemburg, 1308–13, the successor of Albert, vindicated his right by the sword, triumphantly fought his way to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned, and imposed a tribute on all the states of Italy. His sudden death in Tuscany was suspected to be the consequence of papal resentment. It was in his time that the seat of the papedom was transferred by Clement V. from Rome to Avignon,

1309, where it remained till 1377. The factions of Italy were the cause of this removal. Louis IV. of Bavaria, the successor of Henry, deprived and excommunicated by John XXII., revenged himself by deposing the pope. This pontiff, who had originally been a cobbler, surpassed the most of his predecessors in pride and tyranny. He kept his seat on the papal chair, and left at his death an immense treasure, accumulated by the sale of benefices, 1334. To prevent the indignity of these contentions for the future, a diet of the princes of the empire, held at Frankfurt in 1338, decreed that the pope had no temporal power within the empire—that the imperial dignity depended on God alone, and that whoever should be chosen by a majority of the electors became immediately both king and emperor with all the prerogatives of that station, and did not require the approbation of the pope. They also decreed that all persons who maintained the contrary should be guilty of high treason. This law, confirmed as it was by subsequent usage, emancipated the German empire, and encouraged inquiry into the spiritual and temporal claims of the popes.]

2. Louis's successor in the empire, Charles IV., king of Bohemia, published, in 1355, the imperial constitution termed *The Golden Bull*, the fundamental law of the Germanic body, which reduced the number of electors to seven, whereas, before, all possessors of fiefs, and all the prelates, claimed a right to vote in the election of an emperor. The seven electors were the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne; the king of Bohemia, the Count Palatine, the duke of Saxony, and the margrave of Brandenburg. These exemplified their new rights, by deposing his son Wenceslaus for incapacity in 1400. Three separate factions of the French and Italian cardinals having elected three separate popes, the emperor Sigismund judged this division of the church to be a fit opportunity for his interference, to reconcile all differences, and establish his own supremacy. He summoned a general council at Constance in 1414, and ended the dispute by degrading all the three pontiffs and naming a fourth, Martin V. (Colonna), 1417. This division of the papacy is termed the *Great Schism of the West*.

3. The spiritual business of the council of Constance was no less important than its temporal. John Huss, a disciple of Wickliff, was tried for heresy, in denying the hierarchy, and satirizing the immoralities of the popes and bishops. He did not deny the charge; and refusing to confess his errors, was burned alive. A similar fate was the portion of his friend and disciple, Jerome of Prague, who displayed at his execution the eloquence of an apostle and the constancy of a martyr (1416). Sigismund felt the consequence of these horrible proceedings; for the Bohemians opposed his succession to their vacant crown, and it cost him a war of sixteen years to attain it.

4. Whatever was the imperial power at this time, it derived

but small consequence from its actual revenues. The wealth of the Germanic states was exclusively possessed by their separate sovereigns, and the emperor had little more than what he drew from Bohemia and Hungary. The sovereignty of Italy was an empty title. The interest of the emperor in that country furnished only a source of faction to its princes, and embroiled the states in perpetual quarrels. A series of conspiracies and civil tumults form, for above 200 years, the annals of the principal cities. Naples and Sicily were ruined by the weak and disorderly government of the two Joannas (1342—82; 1414—35). A passion which the younger of these conceived for Sforza, [a distinguished soldier, who was afterwards] raised to the sovereignty of Milan; and her adoption, first of Alphonso of Arragon, and afterwards of Louis of Anjou, laid the foundation of those contests between Spain and France for the sovereignty of the two Sicilies which afterwards agitated all Europe.

SECTION XXII.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. HENRY III., who, at nine years of age, succeeded to the crown of England on the death of his father John in 1216, was a prince of amiable dispositions, but of weak understanding. His preference for foreign favourites disgusted his nobles; and the want of economy in his government, and oppressive exactions, deprived him of the affection of his people. Montfort, earl of Leicester, son of the leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, and brother-in-law of the king, conceived a plan for usurping the government; and forming a league with the barons, on the pretext of reforming abuses, compelled Henry to delegate all the regal power into the hands of twenty-four of their number, [twelve to be nominated by the king, and twelve by themselves, 1258. These divided among themselves the offices of government, and the custody of the king's castles. A council of state of fifteen persons, with Boniface, Archbishop of Canterbury, at their head, was formed. They then began their work of reformation: four knights were appointed in each county to watch the conduct of the king's officers. Sheriffs were to be elected annually, and a parliament to be summoned three times a year; but under the pretext of saving the expense of such frequent journeys, twelve persons were appointed, and to them, in conjunction with the council of state, was confided the government of the realm.] A measure fatal to the power of the barons, for the council of state, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, determined to restore the royal authority; and they called on prince

Edward, a youth of intrepid spirit, to avenge his father's wrongs, and save the kingdom.

2. Leicester raised a formidable force, and in a successful engagement, at Lewes in Sussex, defeated the royal army, and made both the king and prince his prisoners, 1264. He now compelled the impotent Henry to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty; and assuming the character of regent, he called a parliament, summoning two knights from each of the counties, two deputies from each city, and two from each of the principal boroughs, the first regular plan of the English House of Commons, 1265.* This assembly exercising its just rights, and asserting with firmness the re-establishment of the ancient government of the kingdom, Leicester judged it prudent to release the prince from his confinement; and Edward was no sooner at liberty, than he took the field against the usurper, who, in the battle of Evesham, 4th of August, 1265, was defeated and slain. Henry was now restored to his throne by the arms of his gallant son, who, after establishing domestic tranquillity, embarked in the eighth and last crusade with Louis IX., in 1270, and signalized his prowess by many valorous exploits in Palestine. He had the honour of concluding an advantageous truce for ten years with the sultan of Babylon, and was on his return to England when he received intelligence of his accession to the crown by the death of his father, in 1272. He arrived in England in 1274.

3. Edward I., in the beginning of his reign, projected the conquest of Wales. The Welsh, the descendants of the ancient Britons who had escaped the Roman and Saxon conquests, preserved their liberty, their laws, their manners, and their language. Their prince, Llewellyn, refusing his customary homage, Edward invaded Wales, and surrounding the army of the prince, who retreated to the mountains, cut off all his supplies, and compelled him to an unqualified submission. The terms demanded were, the surrender of the country between Cheshire and the river Conway, a large sum of money, and an obligation of perpetual fealty to the crown of England. The Welsh, provoked by the insolence of the English borderers, infringed this treaty; and Edward marched his army into the heart of the country, where the troops of Llewellyn made a most desperate but ineffectual resistance. In a decisive engagement, in 1283, the prince was slain. His brother David, betrayed into the hand of the conqueror, was inhumanly executed on a gibbet; and Wales, completely subdued, was annexed to the crown of England. With a policy equally absurd and cruel, Edward ordered the Welsh bards to be put to death wherever found; thereby ensuring the

* This is the epoch (49 Henry III.) at which the representation of the commons becomes indisputable. No public instrument previous to this time names the citizens and burgesses as constituent parts of parliament. It is not certain that they were summoned uniformly at first, but certainly without any long intermission. There is a presumption that they sat in the parliament of 1269, and in the first parliament of Edward I., 1271, and not long after regularly.

perpetuation of their heroic songs, and increasing the abhorrence of the vanquished people for their barbarous conqueror.

4. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. The designs of this enterprising monarch on the kingdom of Scotland invite our attention to that quarter; but previously require a short retrospect to its earlier history.

SECTION XXIII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND TO THE MIDDLE OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. [THE Celts or Gaels were probably the aboriginal inhabitants of Britain, who were driven upon the west and north by the successive invasions of strangers who landed in the east. Their descendants are still to be found in the eastern and northernmost parts of Scotland. In the fifth century there were in North Britain two powerful and distinct tribes or nations, who are for the first time known in history by the name of the Picts and Scots. The Picts, or men of the plains, dwelt on the east coast and in the midland provinces; and the Scots, or men of the hills, on the north-western coast. The Picts were a mixed race of Celts and settlers from the north, of Gothic name, descent, and language; while the Scots were of Irish origin. These two nations appear to have resembled each other in manners and ferocity, and to have exercised the last quality without scruple on the Roman colonists of the south. When the Romans withdrew from Britain about 410, the Picts and Scots confederated together for an irruption into the south, and harassed the Britons for a number of years; when, in 449, they invited the Saxons to their aid. The Picts and Scots were then driven back within their own limits. In 547, Ida, an Angle chief, landed between the mouths of the Forth and the Tweed, and founded the kingdom of Northumberland, subduing the Picts who had established themselves on the south of the frith of Forth. Scotland was then divided between five nations:—1. The Anglo-Saxons; 2. the Picts; 3. the Dalraid or Irish Scots; 4. the Britons; and 5. the Galloway Scots. The Picts had to maintain a continual struggle with the Saxons on one side, and with the Scoto-Irish on the other, until 842, when Urad, the last of their kings, was slain, and the nation subdued by Kenneth II.]

2. [When Kenneth Macalpine united in his person the crowns of the Picts and Scots, he was able successfully to resist the war-like Saxons. The country united under his sway was then called Scotland, which it has ever since retained. From this time un-

til the reign of Malcolm III. surnamed Cean-mohr, or the great head, the Scottish monarchs were occupied either in repelling the invasions of the Danes, or joining them against the Anglo-Saxons. Malcolm, by the defeat and death of king Macbeth,* who had slain his father Duncan, the previous king, in 1039, succeeded to the throne in 1057; and espousing the cause of Edgar Atheling, heir of the Saxon kings of England, whose sister he married, he thus provoked a war with William the Conqueror, which was equally prejudicial to both kingdoms. In an expedition of Malcolm into England, it is alleged that, after concluding a truce, he was compelled by William to do homage for his kingdom. The truth is, that this homage was done for the territories in Cumberland and Northumberland won by the Scots, and held in vassalage of the English crown, though this homage was afterwards absurdly made the pretext of a claim of feudal sovereignty over all Scotland. Malcolm, during his reign, supported a spirited contest with England, both under William I. and his son Rufus; and to the virtues of his Queen, Margaret, his kingdom, in its domestic policy, owed a degree of civilization remarkable in those ages of barbarism. Malcolm was killed whilst besieging Alnwick, together with his eldest son, in 1093. He was succeeded by his brother Donald Bane, who, on issuing an edict of banishment against all foreign nobles in the kingdom, was deposed, and succeeded by Edgar, the third son of Malcolm, 1098. Edgar died after an undisturbed reign of about nine years, in 1106.

2. Alexander I. succeeded, as next brother to Edgar. His reign is chiefly remarkable for the determined struggle he made in defence of the independence of the church of Scotland against the archbishops of Canterbury and York, who each claimed a spiritual authority over Scotland, and the right to consecrate the primate, the archbishop of St. Andrew's, in which they were supported by the popes. Alexander died in 1124, and was succeeded by his younger brother David I., celebrated even by the democratic Buchanan, as an honour to his country and to monarchy, he won from Stephen, and annexed to his crown, the whole earldom of Northumberland. In those reigns we hear of no claim of the feudal subjection of Scotland to the crown of England; though the accidental fortune of war afterwards furnished a ground for it. William I. (the Lion), the grandson of David, taken prisoner at Alnwick by Henry II., was compelled, as the price of his release, to do homage for his whole kingdom, 1174; an obligation which his successor Richard voluntarily discharged, as deeming it to have been unjustly extorted. [William again successfully opposed the interference of the pope in the nomination to the archbishoprick of St. Andrew's. The kingdom

* Macbeth and Duncan were cousins, and grandchildren by their mother's side of Malcolm II. The claim of Macbeth, according to the rule of Scottish succession, was better than that of Duncan. See Sir W. Scott's *History of Scotland*.

was laid under an interdict; but he remained unshaken, when the excommunication was recalled by the new pope. Pope Clement III., in 1181, formally ratified the privileges and independence of the church of Scotland. William derived his cognomen of the Lion, from his being the first who adopted that animal as the armorial bearing of Scotland. He died in 1214, and was succeeded by his son Alexander II., a wise and active monarch, who endeavoured to civilize his Celtic subjects, and to enforce their obedience to the laws, which led to many civil contentions.]

3. [Alexander III. succeeded at eight years old, on the death of his father in 1249. He successfully repelled, in 1263, a formidable invasion by Haco king of Norway, and obtained from him the cession of all the islands in the western seas, except Orkney and Shetland.] At his death in 1285, without male issue, Bruce and Baliol, descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother of William the Lion, by the female line, were competitors for the crown, and the pretensions of each were supported by a formidable party in the kingdom. Edward I. of England, chosen umpire of the contest, arrogated to himself, in that character, the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelling all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and taking actual possession of the country by his troops. He then adjudged the crown to Baliol, [the descendant of the eldest daughter of Earl David] on the express condition of his swearing fealty to him as lord paramount. Baliol, however, soon after renouncing his allegiance, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense force, and compelled the weak prince to abdicate the throne and resign the kingdom into his hands, 1296.

4. William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes whom history records, restored the fallen honours of his country. Joined by a few patriots, his first successes in attacking the English garrisons brought numbers to his patriotic standard. Their successes were signal and conspicuous; victory followed upon victory, and while Edward was engaged on the Continent, his troops were utterly defeated in a desperate engagement at Stirling, and forced to evacuate the kingdom, 1297. Wallace, the deliverer of his country, now assumed the title of governor of Scotland under Baliol, who was Edward's prisoner; a distinction which was followed by the envy and disaffection of many of the nobles, and the consequent diminution of his army. The Scots were defeated at Falkirk, 1298. Edward returned with a vast accession of force; and, after a fruitless resistance, the Scottish barons finally obtained peace by a capitulation, from which the brave Wallace was excepted by name. A fugitive for some time, he was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who put him to death with every circumstance of cruelty that barbarous revenge could dictate, August 23, 1304.

5. *Scotland found a second champion and deliverer in Robert*

Bruce, the grandson of the competitor with Baliol; who, deeply resenting the humiliation of his country, once more set up the standard of war, and gave defiance to the English monarch, to whom his father and grandfather had meaply sworn allegiance. Under this intrepid leader the spirit of the nation was roused at once: the English were attacked in every quarter, and once more entirely driven out of the kingdom. Robert Bruce was crowned king at Scone, March 27, 1306; and Edward, advancing with an immense army, died at Burgh on the Sands, near Carlisle, on the 7th July 1307, enjoining it with his last breath to his son Edward II. to prosecute the war with the Scots to the entire reduction of the country.

[1. THE ANGLO-SAXONS, the same people as the conquerors of South Britain, occupied the March, Teviotdale as high as Melrose, and the Three Lethians. The Saxons retained possession of these five provinces under several kings. One of these, Edwin, built the castle called from his name Edwinburgh, now Edinburgh; 2. THE PICTS, the most numerous race, possessed the counties of Stirling, Perth, Fife, Angus, and all the north-eastern counties; though in Moray, Caithness, and Sutherland, there were settlements of Scandinavians in a state of independence. 3. THE DALRAID or IRISH SCOTS held all the mountainous district now called Argyleshire, as far as the mouth of the Clyde. 4. THE BRITONS, the descendants of the ancient colonists, inhabited Clydesdale, with Peeblesshire, Selkirkshire, and the upper part of Roxburghshire, bordered on the south by Cumberland; these provinces formed the kingdom of Strath-Clyde. 5. THE GALLOWAY SCOTS occupied the greater part of Ayrshire and Wigtonshire. They were a mixed race, partly Scots, settlers from Ireland, of a different stock from the Dalraid or Ulster Irish, and of Picts, who had acquired possessions among them.]

SECTION XXIV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. In the reign of Edward I., who has been styled the English Justinian, the constitution of England gradually advanced to maturity.* The commons had been admitted to parliament in the

* According to Sir Matthew Hale, there was more done in the first thirteen years of his reign to settle and establish the distributive justice of the kingdom, than in all the ages since that time put together, 4 Blackstone 423. 1. He established, confirmed, and settled, the Great Charter, and Charter of Forests. 2. He gave a mortal wound to the encroachments of the pope and his clergy, by limiting and establishing the bounds of ecclesiastical jurisdiction. 3. He defined the limits of the several temporal courts of the highest jurisdiction, those of the king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer. 4. He settled the boundaries of the inferior courts in counties, hundreds, and manors. 5. He secured the property of the subject, by abolishing all arbitrary taxes and tollages, levied without consent of the national council. 6. He first established a repository for the public records of the kingdom; few of them are more ancient than the reign of his father, and those were by him collected. 7. He instituted a speedier way for the recovery of debts, by granting execution upon goods and chattels, and land. 8. He provided against the alienation of property. 9. He effectually provided for the recovery of advowsons as temporal rights, &c.

latter period of his father Henry III. A statute was passed, 25 Edward, cap. 5 and 6, (1297), which declared, that no tax or impost should be levied without the consent of lords and commons. The same monarch ratified the *Magna Charta* no less than eleven times in the course of his reign; and henceforward this fundamental law began to be regarded as sacred and unalterable.

2. Edward II. was in character the very opposite of his father, weak, indolent, and capricious, but of humane and benevolent affections. He disgusted his nobles by his attachment to mean and undeserving favourites, whom he raised to the highest dignities of the state, and honoured with his exclusive confidence. [Responsible advisers of the crown were then unknown.] Peirs Gaveston, a vicious and trifling minion, whom the king appointed regent when on a journey to Paris to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, disgusted the barons to such a pitch, that they compelled the king to delegate all the authority of government to certain commissioners, and to abandon his favourite to their resentment. He was doomed to perpetual imprisonment, and, on attempting to escape was seized and beheaded, 1312.

3. Edward, in obedience to his father's will, invaded Scotland with 100,000 men. King Robert Bruce met this immense force with 30,000 at Bannockburn, near Stirling, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter, June 25, 1314. This important victory secured the independency of Scotland. Edward escaped by sea to his own dominions; and a new favourite, Spencer, supplying the place of Gaveston, his undeserved elevation and overbearing character completed the disaffection of the nobles to their sovereign. The queen, a vicious adulteress, joined the malecontents, and, passing over to France, obtained from her brother Charles IV. an army to invade England and dethrone her husband. Her enterprise was successful. Spencer and his father were betrayed into the hands of their enemies, and perished on a scaffold. The king was taken prisoner, tried by parliament, and solemnly deposed; and, being confined to prison, was soon after put to death with unexampled circumstances of cruelty, 1327.

4. Edward III., crowned at fourteen years of age, 1327, could not submit to the regency of a mother stained with the foulest of crimes. His father's death was revenged by the perpetual imprisonment of Isabella, and the public execution of her paramour Mortimer, 1330. The death of king Robert Bruce, and the minority of his son David II., induced Edward to attempt the conquest of Scotland. He marched to the north with a prodigious army, vanquished the Scots in the battle of Halidon-hill, and placed Edward Baliol, his vassal and tributary, on the throne, 1333. But the kingdom was as repugnant as ever to the rule of England, and the first favourable opportunity was taken for the renewal of hostilities, which was given by the war with France.

5. On the death of Charles IV. in 1328, without male issue, the crown of France was claimed by Edward III. of England, in right of his mother, the sister of Charles, while, in the mean time, the throne was occupied by the male heir, Philip of Valois, grandson of Philip III. [In 1337, Edward publicly asserted his claim to the throne of France, and determined to enforce his claims by invasion.* He formed alliances with the emperor of Germany, the dukes of Brabant and Guilders, and other princes; while Philip attached to his interest the kings of Navarre, and Bohemia; the dukes of Bretagne, Lorraine, Austria, and others. Half the sovereigns of Europe were engaged in this quarrel. Edward's first campaign in Flanders in 1338, was fruitless. In the following year he fitted out an immense armament by sea and land, and obtained a signal victory over the French fleet off Helvoet Sluys. A petty warfare was continued until 1345, when Edward landed on the coast of Normandy, and, with his son, the Black Prince, ran a career of the most glorious exploits. Philip, with 100,000 men, met the English with 30,000, and was entirely defeated in the field of Cressy (August 26, 1345). Here the English are said for the first time to have used artillery in battle. Fire-arms are thus but a recent invention, and have much contributed to lessen both the slaughter and the frequency of wars. Mr Hume observes, that war is now reduced nearly to a matter of calculation. A nation knows its power; and, when overmatched, either yields to its enemies, or secures itself by alliance. But late events have given some contradiction to these opinions. Calais, taken by the English in 1347, remained in their possession for 210 years, till 1558.

6. The Scots, in the meantime, invading England, were defeated in the battle of Durham, by Philippa, the heroic queen of Edward III., and their sovereign David II. led prisoner to London, 1346. A truce concluded between Edward and Philip was dissolved by the death of the latter in 1350, and the succession of his son John, who took the field with 60,000 men against the Black Prince, and was defeated by him with a far inferior number in the signal battle of Poitiers (September 19, 1350). John, king of France, was led in triumph to London, the fellow-prisoner of David, king of Scotland. But England derived from these victories nothing but honour. The French continued the war with great vigour during the captivity of their sovereign, who died in London, 1364; and they obtained a peace by the cession to the English of Poitou, St.onge, Perigord, &c., while Edward consented to renounce his claim to the crown of France. The death of the Black Prince in 1376, a most heroic and virtuous character, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who died in the following year, June 21,

* By the Salic law, the fundamental law of France, females and their descendants were excluded from the succession to the throne, consequently Edward had no legal claim whatever through his mother.

1377. Notwithstanding the brilliant series of his victories, and the extent of his conquests, yet before his death he had lost them all except Calais and a single fort on the coast of Bretagne.]

7. Richard II. succeeded his grandfather at the age of eleven. Charles VI. soon after became king of France at the age of twelve, and both kingdoms suffered from the distractions attending a regal minority. In England the contests for power between the king's uncles, Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, embroiled all public measures; and the consequent disorders required a stronger hand to compose them than that of the weak and facile Richard. Taking advantage of the king's absence, then engaged in quelling an insurrection in Ireland, Henry of Lancaster rose in open rebellion, and compelled Richard, at his return, to resign the crown. The parliament confirmed his deposition (September 29, 1399), and he was soon after privately assassinated in the thirty-fourth year of his age and the twenty-third of his reign. He left no posterity. Thus began the contentions between the houses of York and Lancaster.

SECTION XXV.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.—STATE OF MANNERS.

1. HENRY IV. ascended the throne on the deposition of Richard II. in 1399, and had immediately to combat a rebellion raised by the earl of Northumberland, for placing Mortimer, earl of March, the heir of the houses of Clarence and of York, on the throne.* The Scotch and Welsh took part with the rebels, but their united forces were defeated at Shrewsbury, and their leader, young Percy (Hotspur), killed on the field. A second rebellion, headed by the archbishop of York, was quelled by the capital punishment of its author. The secular arm was rigorously extended against the followers of Wickliff, and this reign saw the first detestable examples of religious persecution. The life of Henry was embittered by the youthful disorders of his son the prince of Wales, who afterwards nobly redeemed his character. Henry IV. died March 20, 1413, at the age of forty-six, and in the fourteenth of his reign.

2. His son Henry V. took advantage of the disorders of France, from the temporary insanity of its sovereign Charles VI.,

* The earl of March was grandson of Roger Mortimer, the grandson of Philippa, only child of Lionel duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III. His grandfather was declared heir to the crown in 1385. Henry IV. was the grandson of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, third son of Edward III. Hence the earl of March was heir to the crown in right of his descent from the duke of Clarence, and heir to the house of York as the elder son of Richard duke of York, heir of the fourth son of Edward III.

and the factious struggles for power between the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans, to invade the kingdom with a large army, which a contagious distemper wasted down to a fifth of its numbers; yet with this handful of resolute and hardy troops he defeated the French army of 60,000, under the constable d'Albert, in the famous battle of Agincourt, in which 10,000 of the enemy were slain and 14,000 made prisoners, Oct. 24, 1415. Returning to England to recruit his forces, he landed again in 1417, with an army of 25,000, and fought his way to Paris, 1420. The insane monarch, with his court, fled to Troyes, and Henry pursuing, terminated the war by a treaty with the queen-mother and the duke of Burgundy, by which it was agreed that he should marry Catharine the daughter of Charles VI. and receive the kingdom of France as her dowry, which, till the death of her father, he should govern as regent.

3. Meantime the return of Henry to England gave the dauphin hopes of the recovery of his kingdom. He was victorious in an engagement with the English under the duke of Clarence, brother to the king: but his success was of no longer duration than the absence of the English sovereign, who was himself hastening to the period of his triumphs. Seized with a mortal distemper, Henry died at Bois Vincennes, August 31, 1422, in the thirty-fourth year of his age, one of the most heroic princes that ever swayed the sceptre of England. His brother, the duke of Bedford, was declared regent of France; and on the death of Charles VI. about the same time Henry VI., an infant nine months old, was proclaimed king at Paris and at London.

4. Charles VII. recovered France by slow degrees. With the aid of a young female enthusiast, the Maid of Orleans, whom the credulity of the age supposed to be inspired by Heaven, he gained several important advantages over the English, which the latter inhumanly revenged, by burning this heroine as a sorceress. Her death was of equal advantage to the French as her life had been. The government of the English was universally detested; it was a struggle of many years; but at length, in 1450, they were deprived of all they had ever possessed in France, except Calais and Guignes. Charles, when he had restored his kingdom to peace, governed it with admirable wisdom and moderation. [The royal authority in France gained fresh vigour by the expulsion of the English. Charles was the first king who established a permanent militia, and taught his successors to abandon the feudal mode of warfare. This standing army at first amounted only to 6000, but with this small force he was able gradually to abolish the feudal system and to lessen the power of the nobles. This prince also established the liberties of the Gallican church against the encroachments of the popes by the celebrated rule called the *Pragmatic sanction*, 1438.]

5. The state of England and of France, the two most polished

kingdoms in Europe, furnishes a good criterion of the condition of society in those ages of which we have been treating. Even in the large cities, the houses were roofed with thatch, and had no chimneys. Glass windows were extremely rare, and the floors were covered with straw. In England, wine was sold only in the shops of the apothecaries. Paper made from linen rags, was first manufactured in Germany about 1390; and the use of linen for shirts was at that time a very rare piece of luxury. Yet it appears, that even before that age the progress of luxury had excited a serious alarm; for the parliament under Edward III. found it necessary to prohibit the use of gold and silver in apparel to all who had not £100. a-year; and Charles VI. of France ordained, that none should presume to entertain with more than two dishes and a mess of soup. Before the reign of Edward I. the whole country of England was plundered by robbers in great bands, who laid waste entire villages; and some of the household officers of Henry III. excused themselves for robbing on the highway, because the king allowed them no wages. In 1303, the abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for robbing the king's exchequer, but acquitted. The admirable laws of Edward I., which acquired to him the title of the English Justinian, gave strong testimony of the miserable policy and barbarism of the preceding times.

SECTION XXVI.

DECLINE AND FALL OF THE GREEK EMPIRE.

1. In the fourteenth century the Ottoman Turks [deprived the Greek emperors of all their Asiatic provinces, and the greater part of those in Europe, and reduced them to the necessity of paying tribute for those that were left. The emperors owed the preservation of their declining empire, for some time, entirely to the reverses which befell the Ottomans from an unexpected quarter. Bajazet I. invested Constantinople by sea and land for several years, and had prepared to besiege it in form, when he was forced to change his purpose, and defend himself against the victorious Tamerlane, 1400.]

2. Timur-bek, or Tamerlane, a prince of the Moguls, or Uzbek Tartars, and descended from Zingis-Khan,* after the conquest of Persia, and a great part of India and Syria, was invited by the Asiatic princes, enemies of Bajazet, to protect them

* [The native country of the Moguls or Mongols, was the country situated to the north of the great wall of China, between Eastern Tartary and modern Bokhara, which they still inhabit. The famous Zingis-Khan was a chief of one of the tribes or hordes, and appeared as a conqueror about 1206. He subdued the north of China, east and west Tartary, Turkistan, Persia, and all the countries to the frontier provinces of Russia. His successors conquered China, overturned the Caliphate of

against the Ottoman power, which threatened to overwhelm them. Tamerlane, flattered by this request, imperiously summoned the Turk to renounce his conquests; a message answered with a proud defiance, 1400. The armies met near Angora (Ancyra) in Phrygia, and Bajazet was totally defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane in 1402. The conqueror made Samarcand in Bokhara, the capital of his empire, and there received the homage of all the princes of the East. Illiterate himself, he was solicitous for the cultivation of literature and science in his dominions; and Samarcand became for a while the seat of learning, politeness, and the arts, but was destined to relapse, after a short period, into its ancient barbarism.

3. The Turks, after the death of Tamerlane, on an expedition to China in 1405, resumed their purpose of destroying the empire of the East. Amurat II. grandson of Bajazet, a prince of a singular character, had, on the faith of a solemn treaty with the king of Poland, devoted his days to retirement and study. A violation of the treaty, by an attack from the Poles on his dominions, made him quit his solitude. He engaged and cut to pieces the Polish army at Varna, with their perfidious sovereign (1444), and then calmly returned to his retreat, till a similar crisis of public expediency once more brought him into active life. He left his dominions to his son Mahomet II., who resumed the project for the destruction of Constantinople; but its fall was a second time retarded by the necessity in which the Turks were unexpectedly placed, of defending their own dominions against a powerful invader.

4. Scanderbeg (John Castriot) prince of Albania, whose territories had been seized by Amurat II., was educated by the Sultan as his own child, and, when of age, intrusted with the command of an army, which he employed in wresting from Amurat his paternal kingdom, 1443. By great talents and military skill, he maintained his independent sovereignty against the whole force of the Turkish empire, for a period of twenty-three years.

5. Mahomet II., surnamed the Great, son of the philosophic Amurat, a youth of twenty-one years of age, resumed the plan of extinguishing the empire of the Greeks, and making Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman power. Its indolent inhabitants made but a feeble preparation for defence, and the powers of Europe looked on with the most supine indifference. The Turks assailed the city both on the land side and that of the sea; and battering down its walls with their cannon, entered

Bagdad, and rendered the Seljukian Turkish Sultans of Roum or Iconium their tributaries. Baton, the grandson of Zingis, conquered Russia in 1237, then penetrated into Poland, Silesia, Moravia, Hungary, and the countries bordering on the Adriatic Sea, plundering cities, laying waste the country, and carrying terror and destruction wherever he went. Baton founded the empire of Kipchak, which extended over all the Tartar countries to the north of the Caspian Sea and the *Luxine*, as also over Russia and the Crimea.]

word in hand, and massacred all who opposed them. The emperor Constantine was slain; the city surrendered; and thus was finally extinguished the Eastern Empire of the Romans in 1453, which, from the building of its capital by Constantine the Great, had subsisted 1123 years. The imperial edifices were reserved from destruction, the churches converted into mosques; and the exercise of their religion was allowed to all the Christians. From that time the Greek Christians have regularly chosen their own patriarch, whom the Sultan installs; although his authority continues to be disputed by the Latin patriarch, who is chosen by the pope. Mahomet the Great liberally patronized the arts and sciences; and to compensate for the migration of those learned Greeks, who, on the fall of the empire, spread themselves over the countries of Europe, invited both artists and men of letters to his capital from other kingdoms.

6. The taking of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of [Serbia, Bosnia, Albania, Greece, and the whole Peloponnesus and Morea, as well as most of the islands of the Archipelago. The Greek empire of Trebizond, on the coast of Asia Minor, submitted in like manner, 1466.] Italy might probably have met with a similar fate, but for the fleet of the Venetians who opposed the arms of Mahomet with considerable success, and even attacked him in Greece; but the contending powers soon after put an end to hostilities by a treaty. Mahomet the Great died at the age of fifty-one, 1481. The Turkish empire thus became firmly established in Europe, and the Tartars of the Crimea put themselves at the same time under the protection of the Porte.*

SECTION XXVII.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

THE government of Turkey is an absolute monarchy, the whole legislative and executive authority of the state centering in the sultan, whose power is subject to no constitutional control. It is, however, limited in some degree by religious opinion; the precepts of the Koran inculcating certain duties on the sovereign which it would be held an impiety to transgress. It is yet more strongly limited by the fear of dethronement and assassination. Under these restraints, the prince can never venture on an extreme abuse of power.

2. The spirit of the people is fitted for a subjection bordering on slavery. Concubinage being agreeable to the law of Mahomet, the grand Seignior, the viziers, pachas, and other principal men, are born of female slaves; and there is scarcely a

* The Ottoman Court, so called from justice being administered at the gate of the Sultan's palace.

subject of the empire of ingenuous blood by both parents. It is a fundamental maxim of the Turkish policy, that all the officers of state should be such as the sultan can entirely command, and at any time destroy, without danger to himself.

3. The grand vizier was usually (the office is now abolished) intrusted with the whole functions of government, and of course subjected to the sole responsibility for all public measures. Subordinate to him are six viziers of the bench, who are his council and assessors in cases of law, of which he is supreme judge. The power of the grand vizier is absolute over all the subjects of the empire; but he cannot put to death a beglerbeg or a pacha* without the imperial signature; nor punish a janizary, unless through the medium of his military commander. The beglerbegs are the governors of several provinces; the pachas, of a single province. All dignities in the Turkish empire are personal, and dependent on the sovereign's pleasure.

4. The revenues of the grand seignior arise from taxes and customs laid on the subject, annual tributes paid by the Tartars, stated gifts from the governors of the provinces; and, above all, the confiscations of estates, from the viziers and bashaws downwards to the lowest subjects of the empire. The certain and fixed revenues of the sovereign are small in comparison to those which are arbitrary; and his absolute power enables him to execute great projects at a small expense.

SECTION XXVIII.

FRANCE AND ITALY IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. THERE was scarcely any vestige now remaining in France of the ancient feudal government. The only subsisting great fiefs were Burgundy and Brittany. Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who sought to increase his territories by the conquest of Switzerland and Lorraine, was defeated by the Swiss, and killed in battle; and as he left no son, Louis XI. of France took possession of Burgundy as a male fief, 1447. The duke's daughter married Maximilian, son of the emperor Frederick III., who by this marriage acquired the sovereignty of the Netherlands.

2. The acquisition of Burgundy and of Provence, which was bequeathed to France by the count de la Marche, increased very greatly the power of the crown. Louis XI., an odious compound of vice, cruelty, and superstition, and a tyrant to his people, was yet the author of many wise and excellent regulations of public policy. The barbarity of the public executions in his reign is beyond all belief; yet the wisdom of his laws, the

* Governors of provinces.

encouragement he gave to commerce, the restraints he imposed on the oppressions of the nobility, and the attention he bestowed in regulating the courts of justice, must ever be mentioned to his honour.

3. The count de la Marche, besides the bequest of Provence to Louis XI., left him his empty title of sovereign of the Two Sicilies. Louis was satisfied with the substantial gift; but his son Charles VIII. was dazzled with the shadow. After uniting Brittany to the crown by his marriage with Anne, which consolidated France into a great and powerful kingdom, he projected the conquest of Naples, and embarked in the enterprise with the most improvident precipitancy, 1494.

4. The dismembered state of Italy was favourable to his views. The popedom, during the transference of its seat to Avignon, had lost many of its territories. Mantua, Modena, and Ferrara, had their independent sovereigns. Piedmont belonged to the duke of Savoy; Genoa and Milan to the family of Sforza. Florence, under the Medici, had attained to a very high pitch of splendour. Cosmo, the founder of that family, employed a vast fortune, acquired by commerce, in the improvement of his country, in acts of public munificence, and in the cultivation of the sciences and elegant arts. His high reputation obtained for himself and his posterity the chief authority in his native state. Peter de Medici, his great-grandson, ruled in Florence at the period of the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy.

5. The papacy was enjoyed at this time by Alexander VI. *Borgia*, a monster of wickedness. The pope and the duke of Milan, who had invited Charles to this enterprise, immediately betrayed him, and joined the interest of the king of Naples. Charles, after besieging the pope in Rome, and forcing him to submission, devoutly kissed his feet. He now marched against Naples, while its timid prince, Alphonso, fled to Sicily, and his son to the Isle of Ischia, after absolving his subjects from their allegiance. Charles entered Naples in triumph, and was hailed emperor and Augustus; but he lost his new kingdom in almost as short a time as he had gained it. The French began to conduct themselves as masters throughout the whole Peninsula, which led to the league of Venice, between the pope, the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Arragon, Isabella of Castile, the duke of Milan, and the Venetians, for maintaining the independence of Italy; the duke of Milan and the Venetians assembling a large army near Parma, under the command of the marquess of Mantua. Charles, alarmed at these proceedings, determined to return to France, leaving half his army for the protection of Naples. On the return of Charles to France, the troops he had left to guard his conquest were entirely driven out of Italy, 1496.

6. It has been remarked, that from the decisive effect of this confederacy against Charles VIII., the sovereigns of Europe de-

rived an useful lesson of policy, and first adopted the idea of preserving a *balance of power*, by that tacit league, which is understood to be always subsisting, for the prevention of the inordinate aggrandizement of any particular state.

7. Charles VIII. died at the age of twenty-eight, in 1498; and, leaving no children, the duke of Orleans succeeded to the throne of France, by the title of Louis XII.

THE BALANCE OF POWER.

[THE political system called *the balance of power* may have been known to, and occasionally acted upon by the nations of antiquity; but the nations that arose on the ruins of the Roman empire, certainly never acted upon it. From the fourth to the end of the fifteenth century, there was a constant warfare carried on between states, either to defend the possessions then occupied, or to possess others. The same contention was generally carried on within each state between the sovereign and his nobles, both striving to increase their power at the expense of the other, the people being considered of no account by either. A combination of causes and circumstances, both physical and moral, produced a revolution in the manners and governments of most of the European states towards the end of the fifteenth century. The disorders of feudal anarchy (the military occupation of the different countries) gradually disappeared; constitutions better organized were introduced; the temporary levies of vassals began to be superseded by regular and permanent armies, which enabled the sovereigns to repress the exorbitant power of the nobles and barons, and to direct their attention to the internal improvement of their kingdoms. Internal peace led to industry, and the desire to be protected in the enjoyment. The weaker states naturally conceived the idea of a *balance of power* capable of protecting them against the inroads of ambitious and warlike princes. Hence treaties of alliance, subsidies, and guarantees; those wars carried on by a general combination of powers; and hence those treaties for establishing checks and barriers on each other. The object of the League of Venice was to preserve the independence of the numerous states of Italy as they then existed. It was therefore purely a defensive and preservative confederacy.

The system of political equilibrium, which from that period (1495) became the leading object of every European cabinet, did not aim at maintaining among the different states an equality of power or territorial possessions. That would have been chimerical. It only proposed the maintenance of a perfect equality of rights, in virtue of which the weaker states might enjoy in security all that they held by a just claim, against the ambition and usurpation of conquerors, and that any one state might be prevented from acquiring sufficient power to resist the united efforts of all the others. Such was the origin of the European political system called *the balance of power*, the history of which, as opposed to the history of antiquity and the middle ages, together with the great events which happened about the same time, forms the commencement of modern history.]

SECTION XXIX.

HISTORY OF SPAIN IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. We go back a little to the middle of the fourteenth century, to trace the history of Spain. Peter of Castile, surnamed the Cruel (for no other reason than that he employed severe means to support his just rights), had to contend against a bastard brother, Henry of Trastamare, who, with the aid of French mercenaries, called Malandrins, led by Bertrand du Guesclin, strove to dispossess him of his kingdom. Peter was aided by Edward the Black Prince, then sovereign of Guienne, who defeated Trastamare, and took Bertrand prisoner; but on the return of the prince to England, Peter was attacked by his former enemies, and entirely defeated. Unable to restrain his rage in the first interview with Trastamare, the latter put him to death with his own hand, 1368; and thus this usurper secured for himself and his posterity the throne of Castile.

2. The weakness and debauchery of one of his descendants, Henry IV. of Castile, occasioned a revolution in the kingdom. The majority of the nation rose in rebellion; the assembly of the nobles solemnly deposed their king, and, on the alleged ground of his daughter Johanna being a bastard, compelled him to settle the crown on his sister Isabella. They next brought about a marriage between Isabella and Ferdinand of Arragon, which united the monarchies of Arragon and Castile. After a ruinous civil war, the revolution was at length completed by the death of the deposed sovereign in 1474, and the retirement of his daughter Johanna to a monastery, 1479.

3. At the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella to the thrones of Arragon and Castile, Spain was in a state of great disorder, from the lawless depredations of the nobles and their vassals. It was the first object of the new sovereigns to repress these enormities, by subjecting the offenders to the utmost rigour of law, enforced by the sword. The *Hermudad*, or *Holy Brotherhood*,* was instituted in 1478, for the discovery and punishment of crimes; and the Inquisition in 1478 (See *supra*, Sect. XIX. § 3), under the pretext of extirpating Judaism, heresy, and impiety, afforded the most detestable examples of sanguinary persecution.

4. The Moorish kingdom of Granada, a most splendid monarchy, but at that time weakened by faction, and a prey to civil

* The *Hermudad* was a national mounted police, established for the suppression of violence or theft committed on the highways or in the open country, and the capture of those who fled from the cities and towns into the country. The body was governed by a chief, and taxes were imposed to defray the expense, by deputies sent from the different districts. Its establishment was violently opposed by the nobility; but was continued until 1496, when it was reduced to an ordinary police force.

war, offered a tempting object to the ambition of Ferdinand and Isabella. Alboacen was at war with his nephew Aboabdeli, who wanted to dethrone him; and Ferdinand aided Aboabdeli, in the view of ruining both; for no sooner was the latter in possession of the crown by the death of Alboacen, than Ferdinand invaded his ally with the whole force of Arragon and Castile. Granada was besieged in 1491; and after a blockade of eight months, surrendered to the victor. Aboabdeli, by a mean capitulation, saved his life, and purchased a retreat for his countrymen to a mountainous part of the kingdom, where they were suffered to enjoy unmolested their laws and religion. Thus ended the dominion of the Moors in Spain, which had subsisted for 800 years.

5. Ferdinand, from that period, took the title of King of Spain. In 1492, he expelled all the Jews from his dominions, on the absurd ground that they kept in their hands the commerce of the kingdom; and Spain thus lost above 150,000 of the most industrious of her inhabitants. The exiles spread themselves over the other kingdoms of Europe, and were often the victims of a persecution equally inhuman. It would appear that Spain has felt, even to the present times, the effects of this folly, in the slow progress of the arts, and that deplorable inactivity which is the characteristic of her people. Even the discovery of the new world, which happened at this very period, and which stimulated the spirit of enterprise and industry in all the neighbouring kingdoms, produced but a feeble impression on that nation, which might in a great degree have monopolized its benefits. Of that great discovery we shall afterwards treat in a separate section.

SECTION XXX.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.—CIVIL WARS OF YORK AND LANCASTER.

1. WE have seen France recovered from the English in the early part of the reign of Henry VI., by the talents and prowess of Charles VII. During the minority of Henry, who was a prince of no capacity, England was embroiled by the factious contention for power between his uncles, the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort, bishop of Winchester. The latter, to promote his own views of ambition, married Henry to Margaret of Anjou (1444), daughter of Regné the titular king of Naples, a woman of great mental endowments and singular heroism of character, but whose severity in the persecution of her enemies, alienated a great part of the nobles from their allegiance, and increased the partisans of a rival claimant of the crown.

2. This was Richard duke of York, descended by his mother from Lionel duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III., and elder brother to John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, the progenitor of Henry VI. The white rose distinguished the faction of York, as the red that of Lancaster. The party of York gained much strength from the incapacity of Henry, who was subject to fits of lunacy; and Richard was appointed lieutenant and protector of the kingdom, 1454. The authority of Henry was now annihilated; but Margaret roused her husband, in an interval of sanity, to assert his right; and the nation was divided in arms between the rival parties. In the battle of St. Alban's* the Lancastrians were beaten, and the king was taken prisoner by the duke of York, May 22, 1454. Yet the parliament, while it confirmed the authority of the protector (until discharged of it by the lords in parliament), maintained its allegiance to the king, [and provided that the duke's office should cease on the prince of Wales becoming of age].

3. The spirit of the queen reanimated the royal party; and the Lancastrians gained such advantage, that the duke of York fled to Ireland, while his cause was secretly maintained in England by Guy, earl of Warwick. In the battle of Northampton (1460) the party of York again prevailed, and Henry once more was brought prisoner to London, while his dauntless queen still nobly exerted herself to retrieve his fortunes. York now claimed the crown in open parliament, but prevailed only to have his right of succession ascertained on Henry's death, to the exclusion of the royal issue.

4. In the next battle, fought near Wakefield, December 30, 1460, the duke of York was slain, and his party defeated; but his son Edward, supported by Warwick, avenged this disaster by a signal victory near Towton, in Yorkshire, in which [there were engaged 60,000 Lancastrians and 40,000 Yorkists, March 29, 1461. In this battle more than one half the Lancastrians perished, as Edward had forbidden his troops to give quarter.] York was proclaimed king by the title of Edward IV., while Margaret, with her dethroned husband and infant son, fled to Flanders.

5. Edward, who owed his crown to Warwick, was ungrateful to his benefactor; and the imprudence and injustice of his conduct forced that nobleman at length to take part with the faction of Lancaster. The consequence was, that, after some struggles, Edward was deposed in 1470, and Henry VI. once more restored to the throne by the hands of Warwick, now known by the epithet of *The king-maker*. But this change was of no duration: the party of York ultimately prevailed; the Lancastrians were defeated in the battle of Barnet, and the brave Warwick slain in the engagement, April 14, 1471.

* The Paston Letters, written immediately after this affair, state that only six score were killed, whilst 5000 is the number given by the chroniclers.

6. The intrepid Margaret, whose spirit was superior to every change of fortune, prepared to strike a last blow for the crown of England in the battle of Tewkesbury. The event was fatal to her hopes: victory declared for Edward, May 4, 1471. Margaret was sent prisoner to the tower of London; and the prince her son, a youth of high spirit, when brought into the presence of his conqueror, having nobly dared to justify his enterprise to the face of his rival, was barbarously murdered by the dukes of Gloucester and Clarence. Edward returned victorious to London, and on the evening of that day, the 22d of May, Henry VI. was privately put to death in the Tower. The heroic Margaret, ransomed by Louis XI. of France, died in 1482. [This finished the wars of the two roses, which, it is said, cost the lives of one million men and eighty princes of the blood. They were simply wars of dynasty: the people only changed masters; but the power of the feudal nobility having been broken by extermination and extensive confiscations during these wars, property in land came to be much more subdivided, which led to the change in the state of society that arose in the subsequent reigns.]

7. Edward IV., thus secured on the throne by the death of all his competitors, abandoned himself without reserve to the indulgence of a vicious and tyrannical nature. He put to death, on the most frivolous pretence, his brother Clarence; and, preparing to gratify his subjects by a war with France, he died suddenly in the 41st year of his age, and 21st of his reign; poisoned, as was suspected, by his brother, Richard duke of Gloucester, April 9, 1483.

8. Edward left two sons, the elder, Edward V., a boy of thirteen years of age. Richard duke of Gloucester, named Protector in the minority of his nephew, hired, by means of Buckingham, a mob of the dregs of the populace to declare their wish for his assumption of the crown. He yielded, with affected reluctance, to this voice of the nation, and was proclaimed king the title of Richard III., June 26, 1483. Edward V. (after a reign of two months), together with his brother the duke of York, were, by command of the usurper, smothered asleep, and privately buried in the Tower.

9. These atrocious crimes found an avenger in Henry Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, aided by Charles VIII. of France, landed in England. He gave battle to Richard in the field of Bosworth, and defeated the army of the usurper, who was slain while he wore in the engagement courage, August 22, 1485. With the most desperate courage, August 22, 1485. Edward V. (after a reign of two months), together with his brother the duke of York, were, by command of the usurper, smothered asleep, and privately buried in the Tower.

* Grandson of Owen Tudor, by the widow of Henry V., and earl of Richmond, by Margaret, daughter of the duke of Somerset of the house of Lancaster through an illegitimate son of John of Lancaster, and third son of Edward III.

both families by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

10. The reign of Henry VII. was of twenty-four years' duration; and under his wise and politic government, the kingdom recovered all the wounds it had sustained in those unhappy contests. Industry, good order, and perfect subordination, were the fruit of the excellent laws passed in this reign; though the temper of the sovereign was despotic, and his avarice, in the latter part of his reign, prompted to the most oppressive exactions.

11. The government of Henry was disturbed by two very singular enterprises; the attempt of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence; and the similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck, son of a Flemish Jew, to counterfeit the duke of York, who had been smothered in the Tower by Richard III. Both imposters found considerable support, but were finally defeated. Simnel, after being crowned at Dublin king of England and Ireland, ended his days in a menial office of Henry's household. Perkin for five years supported his cause by force of arms, and was aided by a great proportion of the English nobility. Overpowered at length, he surrendered to Henry, who condemned him to perpetual imprisonment; but his ambitious spirit meditating a new insurrection, he was put to death as a traitor. Henry VII. died April 21, 1509, in the fifty-third year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign.

THE CONDITION OF ENGLAND FROM THE DEATH OF KING JOHN TO THE DEATH OF HENRY VII., 1216 TO 1509.

To counterbalance the power of the barons, the cities and principal towns of England that were the property of the crown had generally before the death of John obtained charters of privilege which enfranchised the inhabitants, abolished servitude within them, and formed them into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by magistrates of their own nomination, with liberty to build walls and to form a municipal guard for their protection. In that way a numerous body of the English people became free: industry revived: commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish: population increased; and wealth was acquired by those who had been before the poor and oppressed. These corporations became so many little republics, and centres of freedom. By one of their privileges, whoever of servile condition resided within them for a year and a day without being claimed, was declared free, and admitted a member of the community. The demand for labour in the free towns, induced the bondmen of the country to flock to them for employment and concealment until the year had expired. Those who had acquired their freedom, assisted others in obtaining it. The transition from villains regardant to freemen was also favoured by the necessities of the barons, which led them to grant charters of privileges to the towns within their domains, and a fixed tenure to their villains for sums of money, particularly to defray the expenses of those who engaged in the crusades. It was probably between 1189 and 1274, that the numerous fee-farm (or free) states that formerly studded the ancient cultivated districts of England,

came to be detached from their respective manors by those who went to the Holy Land. In law, the villains regardant, or occupiers of land at the will of the lord, were not entitled to possess private property; but, like the former negro slaves in the West Indies, having concealed what they had saved, they purchased with it perpetual leases of the lands they occupied for raising food for the maintenance of themselves and families—continuing, however, bound to perform certain stipulated work for their lords, as ploughing, sowing, and harvesting their fields; but, as at other times they were at liberty to exercise their industry for their own benefit, they soon acquired wealth, and infused a new energy into society. The increasing importance of the free tenantry early excited the jealousy of the barons, and various attempts were made by them to prevent the increase of their number; but it was not until the thirteenth year of the reign of Edward I., 1285, that the further alienation of land, both with respect to the lord and his issue, was prohibited by the celebrated statute *de donis conditionalibus*. The impolicy of that statute, however, soon being manifest, its evasion was favoured by the king's courts, when a new class of free tenants was created. The demand for labour from the occupiers of free farms having led to the custom of granting permission to villains of manors to work for wages, so long as they performed the customary services to their lords, to prevent disputes, and that the children of the villains might know the extent of the services required of them, these services came to be entered in the books of the manors, and copies thereof given to the villains. This custom being recognised by the courts of law, it was determined that the villain, so long as he performed his customary services, had a right to hold the land in his occupation, "in spite of any determination of the lords' will." By that application of the common law, the villains regardant throughout England became copyholders, and their heirs entitled to hold their lands on the tenure specified in the copy of the court-roll. That decision having rendered the copyholders independent of the manorial lords, the necessities of Edward I. obliged him to grant, in 1283, the statute *quia emptores*, which prohibited the future erection of copyholds, and limited the right to those then in possession, if held of a mesne lord, and if of a superior lord to those who were in possession before the accession of Edward I., or November 20, 1272.

The great body of the occupiers of land throughout England having now acquired a certainty of tenure, together with the enfranchisement of themselves and their descendants, the condition of the agricultural population rapidly improved. It is probable that the free population was still further greatly increased during the wars of the three first Edwards by the enfranchisement of the villains in gross who joined their standards, every person becoming a freeman who received the king's pay. The insurrection of the *bonds* under Wat the Tiler, in the reign of Richard II., is a proof, however, that their number was then considerable, and that their condition was miserable, their demand being that they should no longer be held in bondage. The emancipation of the rural population of England was as constantly resisted by the barons, the great landholders, as that of the Negroes by the West India proprietors; and the difficulty they afterwards had to obtain cheap labour, they sought to obviate by the Statutes of Labourers, which were first enacted in 1349-50, to compel the free labourers to work at less than the natural rate of wages. These statutes, so unjust and oppressive in their operation, often led to civil disturbance. They were only repealed in 1813, when the allowance system in aid of wages since 1796, had more effectually reduced the agricultural population to a condition analogous to slavery than all previous interference with them.

At the end of the fourteenth century, French was still the official language in England of all political bodies and high personages whose existence was connected with the Norman conquest. It was spoken by the king, the bishops, the judges, and by the earls and barons; and it was the language which their children learned as soon as they could speak. The first bill of the

House of Commons that was written in the English language bears the date of 1425; but the House of Lords retained the language of the Conquest to a later period. The long and sanguinary civil wars of the houses of York and Lancaster contributed powerfully to dissolve the aristocratic order of society which the Conquest had founded, by the extinction of numerous families, by the creation of multifarious jealousies, hatreds, and family rivalries, and by forcing the barons severally to make alliances of political party with persons of English extraction. The large domains founded by the Conquest and perpetuated in Norman families were successively confiscated and granted or sold to new men, while many of the former owners were killed or banished. In that period of contention, numbers of the rural population who had continued in bondage became free. The reign of Henry VII. may be considered as the period when the distinction of ranks ceased to correspond in a general manner with that of races, and as the commencement of the state of society at present existing in England. From that time there is no tradition that the inhabitants of England were divided into two hostile populations; the ruling class who spoke Norman-French, and the mass of the people who spoke English, both were fused into one people. The authority of the sovereign was increased; the most powerful barons were reduced to the condition of subjects; and although there were still numbers of bondmen in England, the great body of the people were free, at the close of the fifteenth century.]

SECTION XXXI.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY TO THE DEATH OF JAMES V., 1306 TO 1513.

1. [THE reign of Robert Bruce, 1306 to 1329, was a period of almost continued warfare with England. By his great military talent, and with the assistance of the chivalrous Douglas, the cautious Randolph, his valiant son-in-law Walter Stewart, and other devoted adherents, he expelled the English from every part of Scotland, and, by treaty ratified in a parliament held at Northampton, May 4, 1328, obtained the formal renunciation of all claims of dominion and superiority that had theretofore been assumed over the kingdom. It was also stipulated that all the charters and documents carried from Scotland by Edward I. should be restored, and all public instruments asserting or tending to support any claim of superiority should be delivered up. To perpetuate a good understanding between the two countries, Jane the sister of Edward III. was married to David, son and heir of Bruce, though both were then infants, July 12, 1328. Bruce seemed only to wait for the final deliverance of his country to close his heroic career. He died of leprosy, at the age of fifty-five, brought on by hardship and privation during his eventful life, June 7, 1329. From that time there is scarcely any mention of Scots, Galwegians, Picts, Saxons, or Strath-Clyde Britons. They had all, with the exception of the Highlanders, merged into the single denomination of Scots, and spoke generally the Anglo-Scottish language. This great change had been

produced by the melting down of all petty distinctions and domestic differences in the crucible of necessity. In the wars with England, all districts of the country had been equally oppressed, and almost all had been equally distinguished in combating and repelling the common enemy.]

2. [No prince was ever more indebted to his nobles than Robert Bruce. Their valour conquered the kingdom, and placed him on the throne. His gratitude and generosity bestowed on them the lands of the vanquished; but these additions afterwards appeared to him to have rendered several of them too powerful. For before that time,] in no country of Europe had the feudal aristocracy attained to a greater height than in Scotland. Their power, while it rendered them independent, and often the rivals of their sovereign, was a perpetual source of turbulence and disorder in the kingdom. It was therefore a constant policy of the Scottish kings to humble the nobles, and break their factious combinations. Bruce attempted to retrench the vast territorial possessions of his barons, by requiring every landholder to produce the titles of his estate; but was resolutely answered that the sword was their charter of possession, which led him to drop the project.

3. During the minority of his son David II., Edward Baliol, the son of John, formerly king of Scotland, with the aid of Edward III. of England, and supported by many of the factious barons, invaded the kingdom, and was crowned at Scone; while the young David was conveyed for security to France, 1332. The mean dependence of Baliol on the English monarch deprived him of the affections of the people, when he was expelled within three months; but the fatal battle of Halidon Hill enabled Edward to restore Baliol, who did homage to him, and ceded the southren counties of Scotland, 1333. Robert the steward of Scotland, Randolph, and Douglas, (sons of the heroes of the previous reign,) supported the Brucian interest, and, assisted by the French, restored David to his throne—a prince destined to sustain many reverses of fortune; for, in a subsequent invasion of the English territory by the Scots, David was taken prisoner in the battle of Durham, and conveyed to London, 1346. He remained for eleven years in captivity, and witnessed the similar fate of a brother monarch, John, king of France, taken prisoner by the Black Prince in the battle of Poitiers. David was ransomed by his subjects, and restored to his kingdom in 1357; and he ended a turbulent reign in 1370-1. The crown passed at his demise to his nephew Robert, the high-steward of Scotland, in virtue of a destination made by Robert I. with consent of the States.*

4. The reign of Robert II., which was of twenty years' dura-

* The Stewart family descend from Fitz-Alan of England. In David the First's time, Walter Fitz-Alan held the high post of Seneschal or Stewart of the king's household; and the dignity becoming hereditary in the family, the name of the

tion, was spent in a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, productive of no material consequence to either kingdom; and the weak and indolent disposition of his successor, Robert III., who found himself unequal to the contest with his factious nobles, prompted him to resign the government to his brother, the Duke of Albany. This ambitious man formed the design of usurping the throne by the murder of his nephews, the sons of Robert. The elder, Rothsay, a prince of high spirit, was imprisoned, on pretence of treasonable designs, and starved to death, 1400. The younger, James, escaped a similar fate which was intended for him; but, on his passage to France, whither he was sent in his eleventh year for safety by his father, he was taken by an English ship of war, and brought prisoner to London, 1405. The weak Robert sunk under these misfortunes, and died in 1406, just twelve months after this last misfortune, after a reign of fifteen years.

5. James I., a prince of great natural endowments, profited by a captivity of eighteen years at the court of England, in adorning his mind with every valuable accomplishment. At his return to his kingdom in 1423, which in his absence had been weakly governed by the regent Albany, and suffered under all the disorders of anarchy, he bent his whole attention to the improvement and civilization of his people, by the enactment of many excellent laws, enforced with a resolute authority. The factions of the nobles, their dangerous combinations, and their domineering tyranny over their dependants, the great sources of the people's miseries, were firmly restrained, and most severely punished. But these wholesome innovations, while they procured to James the affections of the nation at large, excited the odium of the nobility, and gave birth to a conspiracy, headed by the Earl of Athole, the king's uncle, which terminated in the murder of this excellent prince, in the forty-fourth year of his age, 1437.

6. His son, James II., inherited a considerable portion of the talents of his father; and, in the like purpose of restraining the inordinate power of his nobles, pursued the same maxims of government, which an impetuous temper prompted him, in some instances, to carry to the most blameable excess. The Earl of Douglas, during the minority of James, trusting to a powerful vassalage, had assumed an authority above the laws, and a state and splendour rival to those of his sovereign. He was seized along with his brother, and both, without accusation or trial, were beheaded, 1440. His successor, in 1452, imprudently running the same career, and boldly justifying in a conference his rebellious practices, was put to death by the king's own hand,

office was converted into a surname. Walter, sixth high-stewart, fought bravely at Bannockburn, defended Berwick with the most chivalrous courage, and was unanimously thought worthy of the hand of Marjory, daughter of the liberator of Scotland.

which led to the rebellion of the Douglas family, and its destruction. Thus were the factions of the nobles quelled by a barbarous rigour of authority. To his people James was beneficent and humane, and his laws contributed materially to their civilization and prosperity. He was killed in the thirtieth year of his age by the bursting of a cannon, in besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was then in the possession of the English, 1460.

7. His son, James III., without the talents of his predecessors, affected to tread in the same steps. To humble his nobles, he bestowed his confidence on mean favourites—an insult which the former avenged by rebellion. His brothers, Albany and Mar, aided by Edward IV. of England, attempted a revolution in the kingdom, which was frustrated only by the death of Edward. In a second rebellion, the confederate nobles forced the Prince of Rothesay, eldest son of James, to appear in arms against his father. In an engagement near Bannockburn, the rebels were successful, and the king was slain in the thirty-fifth year of his age, 1488.

8. James IV., a great and accomplished prince, whose talents were equalled by his virtues, while his measures of government were dictated by a true spirit of patriotism, won by a well-placed confidence the affections of his nobility. In his marriage with Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII. of England, both sovereigns wisely sought a bond of amity between the kingdoms; but this purpose was frustrated in the succeeding reign of Henry VIII. The high spirit of the rival monarchs was easily inflamed by trifling causes of offence; and France, then at war with England, courted the aid of her ancient ally. James invaded England with a powerful army, which he wished to lead to immediate action; but the prudent delays of Surrey, the English general, wasted and weakened his force; and in the fatal battle of Flodden, the Scots were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The gallant James perished in the fight, in his 41st year, and 26th of his reign, 1513. [Twelve earls, thirteen lords, five eldest sons of earls, and an incredible number of barons, fell with him.]

SECTION XXXII.

ON THE ANCIENT CONSTITUTION OF THE SCOTTISH GOVERNMENT.

1. [THE Celtic institution of Clans, or patriarchical government, existed in the earliest period of Scottish history. Each clan was an independent tribe or community of freemen, that occupied a district, and clung together for mutual protection, under a chief who was their leader in war, and their civil ruler in peace. Each clan was distinguished by some common appellation, either pa-

tronymic or local, long before the introduction of surnames or armorial ensigns. But when these became common, each individual of the clan assumed the name and arms of the chief. The territory of the clan was the property of the whole community; and each head of a family had a right to an allotment of land, to be held so long as he rendered the conditional services. The territory of Scotland was divided into clanships, and the federal union of these constituted the nation, which was presided over by the chief of chiefs or king, who was the leader in war, and the umpire of disputes in peace. This supreme chieftom, or right of sovereignty, was hereditary, in so far as the person possessing it was chosen from a particular family; but it was so far elective, that as the office could not be exercised by a child—the choice generally falling upon a full-grown man, the brother or nephew of the deceased, instead of his son or grandson. This uncertainty of succession, which prevailed in respect to the crown, frequently led to rebellion and murder. But to prevent or diminish such evils, the postponed heir, when he arose to manhood, was frequently inaugurated during the lifetime of the reigning king, as the Tanist or successor, with an authority not unlike the Roman Cæsars. During the reign of Malcolm III., 1057 to 1093, the great influx of Saxons and Normans, who obtained extensive grants of land, and became the ancestors of many of the Scottish nobility, naturally led to a change in the administration of the government. They preserved their own language and manners, which were adopted by the court, and spread to the other races by which Scotland was inhabited. But it was not until the time of David I., who began to reign in 1124, that the Anglo-Norman feudal system was established. The administration of government then assimilated to that of England, and the kings were controlled by the great feudal council, which consisted of the vassals (tenants-in-chief) of the crown, and the dignified clergy. These vassals or nobles were few, possessed extensive territories and numerous dependants, and, by their *leagues of mutual defence*, were frequently able to defy the power of the sovereign. Besides, they had secured to themselves hereditarily the supreme direction of all affairs, both civil and military. The offices of Lord Justice General, Great Chamberlain, High Stewart, High Constable, Earl Marishal, and High Admiral, were all hereditary; and in many counties, the office of Sheriff was held in the same manner. The power of the crown was extremely limited; and the king could scarcely be considered as more than the first noble of the kingdom, subject to be restrained, imprisoned, dethroned, and even put to death, at the pleasure of a fierce and turbulent aristocracy.]

2. It therefore became the constant policy of the Scottish kings to abase the power of their nobles, and this struggle we have observed to have been the source of much misery and bloodshed; but the policy was necessary, from the dangerous ambition and lawless tyranny of these nobles, who frequently

aimed at overturning the throne, and exercised the severest oppression on all their dependants. The interests, therefore, of the people, no less than the security of the prince, demanded the repression of this overbearing and destructive power. The aristocracy was however preserved, no less by its own strength than by the concurrence of circumstances, and chiefly by the violent and unhappy fate of the [later] sovereigns. Meantime, although the measures they pursued were not successful, their consequences were beneficial. They restrained, if they did not destroy, the spirit of feudal oppression, and gave birth to order, wise laws, and a more tranquil administration of government.

2. The legislative power, though originally resident in the parliament, [became latterly] virtually in the king, who, by his influence, entirely controlled its proceedings. [Burgesses, the representatives of the towns, were first admitted into the Scottish parliaments by Robert Bruce in 1326, which then consisted of three estates, the nobles (the greater barons), and the lesser barons, the dignified clergy, and the representatives of the towns. In 1427 the lesser barons were exempted from attendance in parliament, when two or more commissioners of shires were annually elected by the freeholders to represent them. The Scottish parliament was never divided, as in England, into two houses, but composed one assembly.] The disposal of benefices gave the crown the entire command of the churchmen in parliament, who equalled the nobles in number; and at least a majority of the commons were the dependants of the sovereign. A committee, termed the Lords of the Articles, prepared every measure that was to come before the parliament, and these, by the mode of their election, were in effect nominated by the king. It is to the credit of the Scottish princes, that there are few instances of their abusing an authority so extensive as that which they constitutionally enjoyed.

3. The king had anciently the supreme jurisdiction in all causes, civil and criminal, which he generally exercised through the medium of his privy council; but in 1425, James I. instituted the Court of Session, consisting of the chancellor and certain judges chosen from the three estates. This court was remodelled by James V. and its jurisdiction limited to civil causes, the cognizance of crimes being committed to the justiciary. The chancellor was the highest officer of the crown, and president of the parliament. To the chamberlain belonged the care of the finances and the public police; to the high-steward the charge of the king's household: the constable regulated all matters of military arrangement; and the marshal was the king's lieutenant and master of the horse.

4. The revenues of the sovereign consisted of his domain, which was extensive, of the feudal casualties and forfeitures, the profits of the wardships of his vassals, the rents of vacant benefices, the pecuniary fines for offences, and the aids or presents

occasionally given by the subject; a revenue at all times sufficient for the purposes of government, and the support of the dignity of the crown.

5. The political principles which regulated the conduct of the Scots towards other nations were obvious and simple. It had ever been an object of ambition to England to acquire the sovereignty of her sister kingdom, who was constantly on her guard against this design of her more potent neighbour. It was the wisest policy for Scotland to attach herself to France, the constant enemy of England; an alliance reciprocally courted from similar motives. In those days this attachment was justly esteemed patriotic; while the Scots, who were the partisans of England, were with equal justice regarded as traitors to their country. In the period of which we now treat, it was a settled policy of the English sovereigns to have a secret faction in their pay in Scotland, for the purpose of dividing, and thus enslaving the nation; and to this source all the subsequent disorders of the latter kingdom are to be attributed.

SECTION XXXIII.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AND SCIENCE IN EUROPE, FROM THE REVIVAL OF LETTERS DOWN TO THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. THE first restorers of learning in Europe were the Arabians, who, in the course of their Asiatic conquests, becoming acquainted with some of the ancient Greek authors, discovered and justly appreciated the knowledge and improvement to be derived from them. The caliphs procured from the eastern emperors copies of the ancient manuscripts, and had them carefully translated into Arabic; esteeming principally those which treated of mathematics, physics, and metaphysics. They disseminated their knowledge in the course of their conquests, and founded schools and colleges in all the countries they subdued.

2. The western kingdoms of Europe became first acquainted with the learning of the ancients, through the medium of those Arabian translations. Charlemagne caused Latin translations to be made from the Arabian, and founded, after the example of the caliphs, the universities of Bononia, Pavia, Osnaburg, and Paris. Alfred, with a similar spirit, and by similar means, introduced a taste for literature in England; but the subsequent disorders of the kingdom replunged it into barbarism. The Normans, however, brought from the continent some tincture of ancient learning, which was kept alive in the monasteries, where the monks were meritoriously employed in transcribing a few of the ancient authors, along with the legendary lives of the saints.

3. In this dawn of literature in England appeared Henry of Huntingdon and Geoffrey of Monmouth, names distinguished in the earliest annals of poetry and romance; John of Salisbury, a moralist; William of Malmesbury, annalist of the history of England before the reign of Stephen; Giraldus Cambrensis, known in the fields of history, theology, and poetry; Joseph of Exeter, author of two Latin epic poems on the Trojan war, and the war of Antioch, or the crusade, which are read with pleasure even in the present day.

4. But this era of a good taste in letters was of short duration. The taste for classical composition and historic information yielded to the barbarous subtleties of scholastic divinity taught by Lombard and Abelard [d. 1142]; and the abstruse doctrines of the Roman law, which began to engage the general attention from the recent discovery of the Pandects at Amalphi, 1137. The amusements of the vulgar in those periods were metrical and prose romances, unintelligible prophecies, and fables of giants and enchanters.

5. In the middle of the thirteenth century appeared a distinguished genius, Roger Bacon [d. 1294], an English friar, whose comprehensive mind was filled with all the stores of ancient learning; who possessed a discriminating judgment to separate the precious ore from the dross, and a power of invention fitted to advance in every science which was the object of his study. He saw the insufficiency of the school of philosophy, and first recommended the prosecution of knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature. He made discoveries of importance in astronomy, in optics, in chemistry and medicine, and mechanics. He reformed the calendar; discovered the construction of telescopic glasses, forgotten after his time, and revived by Galileo; and has left a plain intimation of his knowledge of the composition of gunpowder. Yet this most superior genius believed in the possibility of discovering an elixir for the prolongation of life, in the transmutation of metals into gold, and in judicial astrology.

6. A general taste prevailed for poetical composition in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The troubadours of Provence wrote sonnets, madrigals, and satirical ballads, and excelled in extempore dialogues on the subject of love, which they treated in a metaphysical and Platonic strain. They contended for the prize of poetry at solemn meetings, where princes, nobles, and the most illustrious ladies, attended to decide between the rival bards; and some of those princes, as Richard I. of England, Frederick I. emperor of Germany, are celebrated themselves as troubadours of eminence. Many fragments yet remain of their compositions.

7. The transference of the papal seat to Avignon in the fourteenth century familiarized the Italian poets with the songs of the troubadours, and gave a tincture of the Provencal style to

their compositions, which is very observable in the poetry of Dante [d. 1321], the father of modern Italian poetry, and of Petrarch [d. 1374], the reviver of ancient learning. The *Divina Commedia* of Dante first introduced the machinery of angels and devils in the room of the Pagan mythology, and is a work containing many examples of the terrible sublime. The *Sonnets* and *Canzoni* of Petrarch are highly tender and pathetic, though vitiated with a quaintness and conceit which is a prevailing feature of the Italian poetry. The *Decamerone* of Boccaccio [d. 1375], a work of the same age, is a masterpiece of invention, ingenious narrative, and acquaintance with human nature. These authors have fixed the standard of the Italian language.

8. Contemporary with them, and of rival merit, was the English Chaucer [d. 1400], who displays all the talents of Boccaccio through the medium of excellent poetry. The works of Chaucer discover an extensive knowledge of the sciences, an acquaintance both with ancient and modern learning, particularly the literature of France and Italy, and, above all, a most acute discernment of life and manners.

9. Of similar character are the poems of Gower [d. 1402], but of a graver cast, and a more chastened morality. Equal to these eminent men, in every species of literary merit, was the accomplished James I. of Scotland, of which his remaining writings bear convincing testimony.

10. Spain at this period began to emerge from ignorance and barbarism, and to produce a few of those works which are enumerated with approbation in the whimsical but judicious criticism of Cervantes (*Don Quixote*, b. i., c. 6).

11. But although poetry attained in those ages a considerable degree of splendour, there was but little advancement in general literature and science. History was disgraced by the intermixture of miracle and fable; though we find much curious information in the writings of Matthew of Westminster, of Walsingham, Everard, Duysburg, and the Chronicles of Froissart [d. 1401], and Monstrelet [d. 1453]. Philip de Comines [d. 1509], happily describes the reigns of Louis XI. and Charles VIII. of France. Villani [d. 1348] and Platina [d. 1481] are valuable recorders of the affairs of Italy.

12. A taste for classical learning in the fifteenth century led to the discovery of many of the ancient authors. Poggio discovered the writings of Quintilian, and several of the compositions of Cicero, which stimulated to further research, and the recovery of many valuable remains of Greek and Roman literature. But this taste was not generally diffused. France and England were extremely barbarous. The library at Oxford contained only 600 volumes, and there were but four classics in the royal library at Paris. But a brighter period was approaching. The dispersion of the Greeks, on the fall of the eastern empire, in the end of the fifteenth century, diffused a taste for polite literature over all

the west of Europe. A succession of popes, endowed with a liberal and enlightened spirit, gave every encouragement to learning and the sciences; and, above all, the noble discovery of the *Art of Printing* contributed to their rapid advancement and dissemination, and gave a certain assurance of the perpetuation of every valuable art, and the progressive improvement of human knowledge.

13. The rise of dramatic composition among the moderns is to be traced to the absurd and ludicrous representation in the churches of the Scripture histories, called in England *Mysteries*, *Miracles*, and *Moralities*. These were first exhibited in the twelfth century, and continued to the sixteenth in England, when they were prohibited by law, 1543. Of these we have amusing specimens in Warton's *History of English Poetry*. Profane dramas were substituted in their place; and a mixture of the sacred and profane appears to have been known in France as early as 1300. In Spain, the farcical mysteries keep their ground to the present day; nor was it till the end of the sixteenth century that any regular composition for the stage was known in that country. The Italians are allowed by their own writers to have borrowed their theatre from the French and English.

SECTION XXXIV.

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF COMMERCE IN EUROPE BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES.

1. BEFORE giving an account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, in exploring a new route to India, we shall present a short view of the progress of commerce in Europe down to that period.

The boldest naval enterprise of the ancients was the *Periplus* of Hanno, who sailed from Carthage (570, B.C.) to the coast of Guinea, within four or five degrees of the line. Africa was not known by the ancients to be almost circumnavigable. They had a very limited knowledge of the habitable earth. They believed that both the torrid and frigid zones were uninhabitable; and they were but very imperfectly acquainted with a great part of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Poland, the greatest part of Russia, were unknown to them. In Ptolemy's description of the globe, the 63d degree of latitude is the limit of the earth to the North, the equinoctial to the South.

2. Britain was circumnavigated in the time of Domitian. The Romans frequented it for the purposes of commerce; and Tacitus mentions London as a celebrated resort of merchants. The commerce of the ancients was, however, chiefly confined to the

Mediterranean. In the flourishing periods of the Constantinopolitan empire, the merchandise of India was imported from Alexandria; but, after the conquest of Egypt by the Arabians, it was carried up the Indus, and thence by land to the Oxus, which then ran into the Caspian Sea; thence it was brought up the Wolga, and again carried over land to the Don, whence it descended into the Euxine.

3. After the fall of the Western empire, commerce was long at a stand in Europe.—When Attila was ravaging Italy, the Veneti took refuge in the small islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and there founded Venice in 452, which began very early to equip small fleets, and trade to the coasts of Egypt and the Levant, for spices and other merchandise of Arabia and India. Genoa, Florence, and Pisa, imitated this example, and began to acquire considerable wealth; but Venice retained her superiority over these rival states, and gained considerable territories on the opposite coast of Illyricum and Dalmatia.

4. The maritime cities of Italy profited by the Crusades, in furnishing the armies with supplies, and bringing home the produce of the East. The Italian merchants established manufactures similar to those of Constantinople. Roger, king of Sicily, brought artisans from Athens, and established a silk manufacture at Palermo in 1130. The sugar cane was brought from China and planted in Sicily in the twelfth century, and thence carried to Madeira, and finally made its way to the West Indies in 1506.

5. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the Italians were the only commercial people of Europe. Venice set the first example of a national bank in 1157, which has maintained its credit to the present times. The only trade of France, Spain, and Germany, at this time, was carried on at stated fairs and markets, to which traders resorted from all quarters, paying a tax to the sovereigns or the lords of the territory. The more enterprising bought a privilege of exemption, by paying at once a large sum, and were thence called *free traders*.

6. In the middle ages, the Italian merchants, usually called Lombards, were the factors of all the European nations, and were enticed, by privileges granted by the sovereigns, to settle in France, Spain, Germany, and England. They were not only traders in commodities, but bankers, or money-dealers; but they found in this last business a severe restraint from the canon law prohibiting the taking of interest; and hence, from the necessary privacy of their bargains, there were no bounds to exorbitant usury. The Jews, too, who were the chief dealers in money, brought disrepute on the trade of banking, and frequently suffered, on that account, the most intolerable persecution and confiscation of their fortunes. To guard against these injuries, they invented *Bills of Exchange*.

7. The Lombard merchants awakened a spirit of commerce,

and gave birth to manufactures, which were generally encouraged by the sovereigns in the different kingdoms of Europe. Among the chief encouragements was the institution of corporations or monopolies, the earliest of which are traced up to the eleventh century; a policy perhaps necessary where the spirit of industry is low, and manufactures are in their infancy, but of hurtful consequence where trade and manufactures are flourishing.

8. Commerce began to spread towards the north of Europe about the end of the twelfth century. The sea-ports on the Baltic traded with France and Britain, and with the Mediterranean by the staple of the isle of Oleron, near the mouth of the Garonne, then possessed by the English. The commercial laws of Oleron and Wisbury (a town on the island of Gothland in the Baltic) regulated for many ages the trade of Europe. To protect their trade from piracy, Lubec, Hamburgh, and most of the northern sea-ports, joined in a confederacy, under certain general regulations, termed the *League of the Hanse Towns*, in 1243; —a union so beneficial in its nature, and so formidable in point of strength, as to have its alliance courted by the predominant powers of Europe. [The most flourishing period of this League was about the end of the fourteenth century. At that time, the deputies of upwards of eighty cities appeared at its triennial general assemblies, held at Lubec. The League had the whole trade of the Baltic, and fitted out powerful fleets to protect it, and to maintain their monopoly when interfered with by the sovereigns of the north. As the League was formed to protect commerce against feudal tyranny and rapacity, the natural result was, that as order was established, its influence and power declined.]

9. For the trade of the Hanse towns with the southern kingdoms, Bruges, on the coast of Flanders, was found a convenient entrepôt; and thither the Mediterranean merchants brought the commodities of India and the Levant, to exchange with the produce and manufactures of the North. The Flemings now began to encourage trade and manufactures, which thence spread to the Brabanters; but their growth being checked by the impolitic sovereigns of those provinces, they found a more favourable field in England, which was destined thence to derive the great source of its national opulence.

10. The Britons had very early seen the importance of commerce. Bede relates that London, in 614, was frequented by foreigners for the purpose of trade; and William of Malmesbury speaks of it, in 1041, as a most populous and wealthy city. The cinque ports, Dover, Hastings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich, [to which were afterwards added Folkeston, Winchelsea, and Rye,] obtained in that age their privileges and immunities, on condition of furnishing each five ships of war.

11. The woollen manufacture of England was considerable in the twelfth century. Henry II. incorporated the weavers of London, and gave them various privileges. By a law passed in

his reign, all cloth made of foreign wool was condemned to be burned. Scotland at this time seems to have possessed a considerable source of wealth, as is evident from the payment of the ransom of William the Lion, which was 10,000 marks, equal to £100,000 sterling of present money. The English found it difficult to raise double that sum for the ransom of Richard I., and the Scots contributed a proportion of it. The English sovereigns at first drew a considerable revenue from the custom on wool exported to be manufactured abroad; but becoming soon sensible of the benefit of encouraging its home manufacture, they invited, for that purpose, the foreign artisans and merchants to reside in England, and gave them valuable immunities. Edward III. was peculiarly attentive to trade and manufactures, as appears by the laws passed in his reign; and he was bountiful in the encouragement of foreign artisans. The succeeding reigns were not so favourable; and during the civil wars of York and Lancaster, the spirit of trade and manufactures greatly declined; nor was it till the accession of Henry VII. that they began once more to revive and flourish. In that interval, however, of their decay in England, commerce and the arts were encouraged in Scotland by James I. and his successors, as much as the comparatively rude and turbulent state of the kingdom would permit. The herring fishery then began to be vigorously promoted; and the duties laid on the exportation of woollen cloth, show that this manufacture was then considerable among the Scots. Glasgow began, in 1420, to acquire wealth by the fisheries, but had little or no foreign trade till after the discovery of America and the West Indies.

12. Henry VII. gave the most liberal encouragement to trade and manufactures, particularly the woollen, by inviting foreign [Flemish] artisans, and establishing them at Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, &c. The navigation acts were passed in his reign, and commercial treaties formed with the continental kingdoms, for the protection of the merchant-shipping. Such was the state of commerce at the time when the Portuguese made those great discoveries which opened a new route to India, and gave a circulation to its wealth over most of the nations of Europe.

SECTION XXXV.

DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY, AND THEIR EFFECTS ON THE COMMERCE OF EUROPE.

1. THE property of the *magnetic needle*, in turning constantly to the north-pole had been known in Europe as early as the thirteenth century, but the mariner's compass was not used in sailing till the middle of the fourteenth; and another century had elapsed from that period, while yet the European mariners

scarcely ventured out of the sight of their coasts. The eastern ocean was little otherwise known than by name; and the Atlantic was supposed to be a boundless expanse of sea, extending probably to the eastern shores of Asia. In the belief that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, a promontory on the African coast, in the 29th degree of north latitude, was termed Cape Non, as forming an impassable limit.

2. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, John, king of Portugal, sent a few vessels to explore the African coast; and these doubling Cape Non, proceeded to Cape Boyador, within two degrees of the northern tropic. Prince Henry, the son of John equipped a single ship, which, being driven out to sea, landed on the island of Porto Santo. This involuntary experiment imboldened the mariners to abandon their timid mode of coasting, and launch into the open sea. In 1420, the Portuguese discovered Madeira, where they established a colony, and planted the Cyprus vine and the sugar-cane.

3. The spirit of enterprise thus awakened, Prince Henry obtained from Pope Eugene IV. a bull, granting to the Portuguese the property of all the countries they might discover between Cape Non and India. Under John I. of Portugal, the Cape Verd Islands were discovered and colonized; and the fleets advancing to the coast of Guinea, brought home gold-dust, gums, and ivory. Passing the equator, the Portuguese entered a new hemisphere, and boldly proceeded to the extremity of the continent. In 1479, a fleet under Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and sailing onwards beyond the mouths of the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, after a voyage of 1500 leagues, performed in thirteen months.

4. De Gama entered into an alliance with the Rajah of Calicut, a tributary of the Mogul empire, and returned to Lisbon with specimens of the wealth and produce of the country. A succeeding fleet formed settlements; and, vanquishing the native princes, soon achieved the conquest of all the coast of Malabar. The city of Goa, taken by storm, became the residence of a Portuguese viceroy, and the capital of their Indian settlements.

5. The Venetians, who had hitherto engrossed the Indian trade by Alexandria, now lost it for ever. After an ineffectual project of cutting through the Isthmus of Suez, they attempted to intercept the Portuguese by their fleets stationed at the mouth of the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, but were everywhere encountered by a superior force. The Portuguese made settlements in both the gulfs, and vigorously prosecuted their conquests on the Indian coast and sea. The rich island of Ceylon, the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, and Malacca, were speedily subdued, and a settlement established in Bengal. They proceeded onward to China, hitherto scarcely known to the Europeans but by the account of a single Venetian traveller,

Marco Paolo, in the thirteenth century; and they obtained the emperor's permission to form a settlement at Macao; thus opening a commerce with that immense empire, and the neighbouring islands of Japan. In the space of fifty years, the Portuguese were masters of the whole trade of the Indian Ocean, and sovereigns of a large extent of Asiatic territory.

6. These discoveries produced a wonderful effect on the commerce of Europe. The produce of the Spice Islands was computed to be worth annually 200,000 ducats to Lisbon (about £95,000). The Venetians, after every effort to destroy the trade of the Portuguese, offered to become sole purchasers of all the spice brought to Europe, but were refused. Commercial industry was roused in every quarter, and manufactures made a rapid progress. Lyons, Tours, Abbeville, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, acquired immense wealth. Antwerp and Amsterdam became the great marts of the North. The former owed its splendour to the decline of Bruges, which was ruined by civil commotions; and the Portuguese made Antwerp their entrepôt for the supply of the northern kingdoms. It continued highly flourishing till the revolt of the Netherlands (1569), when it was taken by the Spaniards, and its port destroyed by blocking up the Scheldt.

7. The trade of Holland rose on the fall of Antwerp. Amsterdam had become considerable after the decline of the Hanseatic confederacy in 1428, but rose into splendour and high commercial opulence from the destruction of Antwerp: and the United Provinces, dependent on industry alone for their support, became a model of commercial activity to all other nations.

8. It is not to be doubted that Britain felt the effect of that general stimulus which the Portuguese discoveries gave to the trade of Europe; but other causes had a more sensible operation to that end in England. The Reformation, by suppressing the convents, and restoring many thousands to society, and the cutting off the papal exactions, which drained the kingdom of its wealth, the politic laws of Henry VIII., and the active patriotism of Elizabeth, were vigorous incentives to national industry.

9. From the time of Henry VIII. to the present, the commerce and manufactures of England have been uniformly progressive. The rental of England and Wales, in lands and houses, did not then exceed five millions *per annum*; it is now (1844) above eighty millions.* The unmanufactured wool of one year's growth is supposed to be worth ten millions; when manufactured as it now is, by British hands, instead of being

* The annual value of real property, as assessed to the property tax, exclusive of property in the hands of individuals whose income is less than £150 a-year, was in 1842, in

England,.....	£79,020,965
Wales	3,212,848
	<hr/>
	82,233,813
Scotland,.....	9,284,382

sent abroad as formerly for that purpose, it is worth twenty-five millions. Above a million and a-half of hands are employed in that manufacture alone; half a million are employed in the manufactures of iron, steel, copper, brass, lead; the linen manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, occupy near a million; and a number not much inferior is employed in the fisheries. It is presumable, on the whole, that now (1844) nearly two-thirds of the population of Great Britain are actually dependent on commerce and manufactures.

10. The vast increase of the national wealth of Britain appears chiefly, 1, From the increase of population, which is supposed to be more than five to one (at least in the large cities) since the reign of Elizabeth, and the extraordinary increased production of manufactures by means of the steam-engine and mechanical inventions; 2, From the great addition made to the cultivated lands of the kingdom, and the high improvement of agriculture since that period, whence more than quadruple the quantity of food is produced; 3, From the increase of the commercial shipping, at least six-fold within the same time; 4, From the comparative low rate of interest, which is demonstrative of the increase of wealth. The consequences of the diffusion of the commercial spirit are most important to the national welfare: from general industry arises influence, joined to a spirit of independence; and on this spirit rests the freedom of the British constitution, and all the blessings we enjoy under its protection.

[OBSERVATIONS.—Notwithstanding the increase of national wealth, the abundance and cheapness of all articles of manufacture, and the extraordinary rise in the land rental of the United Kingdom since the year 1500, it is important to draw attention to the fact, that the condition, especially of the agricultural labourers, is now much worse than in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. In 1350, the Statute of Labourers, which was enacted to enforce the acceptance of less than the natural rate of wages, allowed to

A mower of meadows, 5*d.* a day,—equal in weight of metal to 11½*d.*

A haymaker, 1*d.* a day.

A reaper of corn, in the first week of August, 2*d.*; and after, 3*d.* a day.

But notwithstanding that regulation, it is stated by Sir J. Cullum, in his *History of Hawsted, Suffolk*, that in 1387 the wages of reapers were 4*d.* a day, when wheat was sold at 4*s.* a quarter (the average price of the period); oats, 2*s.*; a cow, 4*s.*; an ox, 13*s.* 6*d.*; a goose, 6*d.*; and a hen, 2*d.* Consequently, at that time, a reaper obtained a quarter of wheat for 12 days' labour, for which he would have now to labour for 30 days. In 1495, the Statute fixed the wages of

A carter, without meat, at 5*d.* a day,—equal in weight of metal to 7½*d.*

A mower of meadows, without meat, at 6*d.* a day.

A reaper in harvest, without meat, at 5*d.* a day.

And as the average price of wheat in the latter part of the fifteenth century did not much exceed 4*s.* the quarter, the wages of agricultural labourers had rather increased—that is, they obtained at least the value of four bushels of wheat for a week's labour (equal to about 30*s.* at the average price of the last ten years); whilst for the last fifty years they have

seldom received the value of one bushel and a quarter of wheat for a week's labour (or 9s. 6d.), except when the price was below the average. The great increase in the rent of land has therefore arisen from the labourers receiving a less quantity of produce than before, as well as from the increased fertility of the land, and the increased price of the produce.

The effect of increased production in manufactures has been the reverse of agricultural improvement. It has been accompanied by an extraordinary reduction in the price. Besides, the operatives now not only receive a larger quantity of the product of their labour as their share, but they also receive a larger proportion than at any former period, as the rent or profit of capital is less. Whilst attention has been drawn to the vast increase of the land-rental of Great Britain, it has also been considered necessary to show that in the distribution of the produce, the condition of the agricultural labourers has not been improved—nor can it, until there is less competition in the country for food, and a greater demand for labour.

As it is important to know the fineness and weight of the silver coin in England during the Middle Ages, and the periods when it was debased, the following comparative table is inserted.

King's Regnal Year and A. C.			Standard Fineness of 1 lb. of Silver.	Weight of 20 Shillings in Tale.	Value of the same in Pre- sent Money.			Propor- tion.
			oz. dwt. gr.	oz. dwt. gr.	£	s.	d.	
	Conquest,	1066	Old Stg. or	11 5 0	2	18	1½	2·906
23.	Edward I.,	1300	11oz. 2dwt. f.	11 2 5	2	17	5	2·871
18.	Edward III.,	1344	10 3 0	2	12	5½	2·622
20.	Edward III.,	1346	10 0 0	2	11	8	2·583
27.	Edward III.,	1353	9 0 0	2	6	6	2·325
13.	Henry IV.,	1412	7 10 0	1	18	9	1·937
4.	Edward IV.,	1464	6 0 0	1	11	0	1·550
18.	Henry VIII.,	1527	5 6 11	1	7	6½	1·378
34.	Henry VIII.,	1543	10 0 0	5 0 0	1	3	3½	1·163
36.	Henry VIII.,	1545	6 0 0	5 0 0	0	13	11½	0·698
37.	Henry VIII.,	1546	4 0 0	5 0 0	0	9	3½	0·466
3.	Edward VI.,	1549	6 0 0	3 6 16	0	9	3½	0·466
5.	Edward VI.,	1551	3 0 0	3 6 16	0	4	7½	0·232
6.	Edward VI.,	1552	11 1 0	4 0 0	1	0	6½	1·028
1.	Mary,	1553	11 0 0	4 0 0	1	0	5½	1·024
2.	Elizabeth,	1560	11 5 0	4 0 0	1	0	8	1·033
43.	Elizabeth,	1601	11 5 0	3 17 10	1	0	0	1·000

The debasement of the coin was resorted to by the crown, probably from a mistaken notion that the expenses of government could be lessened by that means; but as the price of commodities depends on the exchangeable value of equivalents, the prices of all articles rose in proportion to the depreciation, and no advantage beyond defrauding its present creditors could be gained by it. All debtors had been equal gainers, and all money rents would be proportionally lowered until a re-adjustment took place. The great sufferers were the agricultural labourers, whose money-wages were fixed by statute from 1350; and the debasement of the coin in the reign of Henry VIII., and the subsequent depreciation in the value of gold and silver, consequent on the large importations from America, undoubtedly were principal causes of the distress which prevailed so generally among them in the latter part of the sixteenth century.]

PART THIRD.

MODERN HISTORY.

SECTION I.*

INTRODUCTION—VIEW OF THE STATE OF EUROPE AT THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. [THE invasion of Italy by Charles VIII. of France, in 1494, is the event fixed upon by historical writers for the commencement of Modern History. According to Hallam, it furnishes a determinate epoch in the annals of Italy and France, and nearly coincides with events which naturally terminate the history of the Middle Ages in other countries. It is also the event that first engaged the principal states of Europe in relations of alliance or hostility, which may be deduced to the present day, and that led to what has been called the European Political System, of which the history may be followed as a whole.

2. Although no single event had occurred, that distinctly marked an epoch, and formed an exact dividing line, as between antiquity and the middle ages, yet the concurrence of events, particularly towards the close of the fifteenth century, the influence of which were felt in every part of Europe, sufficiently justify the commencement of a new historical era. The more important were—1. The conquest of Constantinople, and the establishment of the Turkish empire in Europe, 1453. 2. The revival of ancient learning, which the Greek refugees eminently contributed to produce. 3. The invention of printing, of paper, of gunpowder, and of the mariner's compass. 4. The general decay of the feudal system, and the subversion of the power of the feudal nobility, consequent on the improvement of society, which increased the sovereign authority throughout Europe. 5. The change in the art of war by the use of gunpowder, and the establishment of standing armies. 6. The discovery of America by Columbus, 1492; and of the passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497, which led to a total change in the commerce of the world.

3. "At the close of the fifteenth century, we contemplate the consummation of an important revolution in the structure of political society, and the first application of several inventions destined to exercise the widest influence on human civilization. The feudal institutions, or rather the feudal principle, which operated even where the institutions, strictly speaking, did not exist, after having wrought its appointed uses, had gradually fallen into decay; for it had not the power of accommodating itself to the increased demands and improved condition of society. However well suited to a barbarous age, it was found that the distribution of power among the members of an independent aristocracy, was unfavourable to that degree of personal security and tranquillity indispensable to great proficiency in the higher arts of civilization. It was equally repugnant to the principle of patriotism, so essential to national independence, but which must have operated feebly among a people whose sympathies, instead of being concentrated on the state, were claimed by a hundred masters, as was the case in every feudal community. The conviction of this reconciled the nation to the transfer of authority into other hands; not those of the people, indeed, who were too ignorant, and too long accustomed to a subordinate, dependent situation, to admit of it,—but into the hands of the sovereign. It was not until three centuries more had elapsed, that the condition of the great mass of the people was to be so far improved as to qualify them for asserting and maintaining the political consideration which of right belongs to them."*

4. "In whatever degree public opinion and the progress of events might favour the transmission of power from the aristocracy to the monarch, it is obvious that much would depend on his personal character; since the advantages of his station alone made him by no means a match for the combined forces of his great nobility. The remarkable adaptation of the characters of the principal sovereigns of Europe to this exigency, in the latter half of the fifteenth century, would seem to have had something providential in it. Louis XI. of France, Henry VII. of England, John II. of Aragon, and his son Ferdinand, Ferdinand of Naples, and John II. of Portugal, however differing in other respects, were all distinguished by a sagacity which enabled them to devise the most subtle and comprehensive schemes of policy, and which was prolific in expedients for the circumvention of enemies too potent to be encountered by open force. Their operations, all directed towards the same point, were attended with similar success, resulting in the exaltation of the royal prerogative at the expense of the aristocracy, with more or less difference to the rights of the people. In every country, however, the nation at large gained greatly by the revolution, which came on insensibly; and by securing internal tranquillity, and the ascendancy of law

* Prescott's *Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, Part 2. c. 1.

over brute force, gave ample scope for those intellectual pursuits that withdraw mankind from sensual indulgence, and too exclusive devotion to the animal wants of our nature.*

5. Before entering upon the history of the principal European states, we shall take a short survey of their situation at the period from which Modern History commences.

Charles VII. having stripped the English of their possessions in France, except Calais, and taking advantage of the terror which such a formidable enemy had left upon the minds of his subjects, retained under arms a body of 9,000 cavalry, and of 16,000 infantry, which formed the first standing army in Europe. As the kings of France got the start of other powers in establishing a military force in their dominions, so they were the first who effectually broke the feudal aristocracy, by depriving them of the power which gave them importance. The policy of Charles was followed up by his son Louis XI., who greatly extended the power and prerogative of the crown, and increased the standing army to 9,000 cavalry, and 25,000 infantry, including 6,000 Swiss, who were then the most formidable infantry in Europe. At his death, in 1483, he left France a great and a consolidated kingdom, with a well-appointed army, and an ample treasury, ready to carry her arms into other countries.

Henry VII. of England, as soon as he was seated on the throne, followed the example of Louis; but circumstances were less favourable. He held the sceptre by a disputed title: a popular faction was ready every moment to take arms against him; and after the long civil wars, during which the nobility had often displayed their power in creating and deposing kings, he felt it necessary to carry on his measures deliberately and without any violent exertion. He endeavoured to undermine that formidable structure which he durst not attack openly. He began by permitting the barons to break the entails of their estates, and to dispose of them. He prevented the nobility from keeping in their service numerous bands of retainers, which rendered them formidable and turbulent. He favoured the rising power of the middle classes. He encouraged agriculture, trade and commerce; and by securing to his subjects the blessings which flow from peace, and the firm and steady administration of the laws, he made, imperceptibly, considerable alterations in the English constitution, and transmitted to his successor authority so extensive, as rendered him one of the most absolute monarchs in Europe, and capable of the greatest and most vigorous efforts.

In Spain, the union of all its crowns by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella; the expulsion of the Moors from Grenada; the command of the great armies which it had been necessary to keep on foot in order to accomplish this; the wisdom and steadiness of their administration; and the address with which they availed themselves of every incident that occurred to humble the

* Prescott's Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, Part 2, c. 1.

nobility, and to extend their own prerogative—conspired in raising these monarchs to such eminence and authority as none of their predecessors had ever enjoyed.

Immediately before this period, the German empire was in a state of anarchy, from the dissensions among the members which composed it; but the regulations established by Maximilian I. of Austria, who became emperor in 1492, had the effect of maintaining peace and order, and restoring some degree of vigour to the imperial authority.

Italy was in a different state from that of any other part of Europe. Instead of those extensive monarchies which occupied the rest of the continent, it was parcelled out into many small states, each of which possessed sovereign and independent jurisdiction. The only monarchy in Italy was that of Naples. In Venice, Florence, and Genoa, a republican form of government was established. Milan was subject to sovereigns who had assumed no higher titles than that of duke. The states of the church were of an anomalous character, the sovereign being the spiritual head of Christendom, but with a very limited temporal power in his own territories, until the accession of Alexander VI. (1492), who subverted the power of the Roman barons, and rendered the popes masters of their own dominions.

The Ottoman power was then firmly established in Europe, and the government better organized, and possessing a more complete command of whatever force the empire was capable of exerting, than any other European state. Besides, the Turkish troops possessed every advantage that arises from superiority in military discipline, which rendered them superior to the forces of the Christian powers.]

SECTION II.

FRANCE, SPAIN, AND ITALY, IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH AND BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. [ITALY, in the end of the fifteenth century, was eminently flourishing in science and arts. For more than a century, it had been a world by itself, as well in reference to its politics as its culture. In the enjoyment of independence, its states formed a system which had for its object the maintainance of a perfect equality of rights; in virtue of which, the weaker might enjoy in security all that they held by a just right. The popes were exceedingly active in these transactions, employing their influence to prevent the interference of any foreign power in the affairs of Italy.

2. France was the first to carry abroad an activity unemployed at home, and to make Italy feel the change which had taken place in the politics of Europe. The expulsion of Charles VIII.,

in as short a time as he had taken to conquer it (see page 347), only had the effect of "directing towards Italy the attention of all the western powers. They had learned that they were strong enough to act as masters, and, if they pleased, as robbers, in this the richest and most civilized country on the earth. All the powers on the confines henceforth aspired to subject some part of Italy to their dominion. They coveted their share of tribute from a land so fruitful of impost—from those cities in which industry employed such numbers, and accumulated so much capital. Cupidity put arms in their hands, and smothered every generous feeling. The commanders were rapacious; the soldiers thought only of pillage. They regarded the Italians as a race abandoned to their exactions, and vied with each other in the barbarous methods which they invented for extorting money from the vanquished, until at last they completely destroyed the prosperity which had provoked their envy."—*Sismondi's Italian Republics*, c. 14.]

3. [Charles did not live to seek vengeance—a sudden death, April, 1498, removed him from the world; but his successor,] Louis XII., eagerly bent on vindicating his right to Naples, courted the interest of Pope Alexander VI., who promised his aid, on the condition that his natural son, Cæsar Borgia, should receive from Louis the duchy of Valentinois, with the king of Navarre's sister in marriage. Louis crossed the Alps (August, 1499), and in the space of a few days was master of Milan and Genoa. Sforza, duke of Milan, became his prisoner for life. Afraid of the power of Ferdinand of Spain, Louis joined with him in the conquest of Naples, and agreed to divide with him the conquered dominions, the pope making no scruple to sanction the partition. But the compromise was of no duration; for Alexander VI. and Ferdinand, judging it a better policy to share Italy between themselves, united their interest to strip Louis of his new territories. The Spaniards, under the celebrated Gonsalvo de Cordova, defeated the French under the Duc de Nemours and the chevalier Bayard; and Louis irrecoverably lost his share of the kingdom of Naples; the whole, together with Sicily, becoming dependent on Spain (January, 1504).

4. History relates with horror the crimes of Pope Alexander VI. and his son Cæsar Borgia; their murders, robberies, profanations, incests. They compassed their ends in attaining every object of their ambition, but with the universal abhorrence of mankind, and finally met with an ample retribution for their crimes. The pope died by poison, prepared, as was alleged, by himself for an enemy; and Borgia, stripped of all his possessions by Pope Julius II., and sent prisoner to Spain by Gonsalvo de Cordova, perished in miserable obscurity.

5. Julius II., the successor of Alexander, projected the formidable league of Cambray, 1508, with the emperor, the kings of France and Spain, the duke of Savoy, and king of Hungary,

the destruction of Venice, and dividing her territories among confederates. They accomplished in part their design; and she was on the verge of annihilation, when the pope changed politics; and having made the French subservient to his views under the Venetians, now formed a new league with them and the Germans and Spaniards, to expel the French from Italy and appropriate all their conquests. The Swiss and the French co-operated in this design. The French made a brave defence, under their generals Bayard and Gaston de Foix (Duc de Nemours, and nephew of Louis), but were finally overpowered. France was compelled to evacuate Italy: Ferdinand, with the aid of Henry VIII. of England, stripped him of Navarre, and forced him to purchase a peace. He died in 1515; and, though unsuccessful in his military enterprises, from the superior abilities of his rivals, Pope Julius and Ferdinand, was justly esteemed by his subjects for the wisdom and equity of his government. [Francis I. renewed his predecessor's (Louis XII.) treaty of alliance with Venice, and entered Lombardy with a powerful army. On August 15, 1515, to repossess the duchy of Milan. The French hastened in great force to defend Maximilian Sforza, whom they had re-established on the ducal throne. But on imprudently engaging the French at Marignano, they suffered so severely as to be obliged to retreat, when the whole duchy submitted to their power. Sforza abdicated the sovereignty for a sum of 30,000 crowns, secured to him in France; and the Swiss, after agreeing to a treaty of peace (which took the name of "Paix Perpetuelle," and became the basis of all subsequent treaties with them), the influence of France in Italy seemed confirmed (November, 1515). Amidst these transactions, Pope Leo X. and the Catholic died; and his grandson Charles succeeded to his Spanish kingdoms, January 15, 1516, shortly after which he concluded a treaty at Noyon, by which Francis ceded to him all his right to the kingdom of Naples, as the dower of a young daughter, whom he promised to Charles in marriage. Pope Leo and the emperor then acceded to the treaty, which terminated the wars which had grown out of the league of Cambray. The Venetians were once more put in possession of the states of which they had been dispossessed: but their power was annihilated, their population reduced to one-half, their constitution itself shaken, and they were never after in a position to contend for the independence of Italy. Had Italy been allowed to repose after so many disasters, she might still have preserved her strength and population, and been prepared to commence her struggle with the transalpine nations; but this was denied to her by the heartless lenity and ambition of Pope Leo X. (the successor of Julius), who sought only the aggrandizement of the family of the Medicis.]

SECTION III.

GERMANY AND FRANCE IN THE REIGNS OF CHARLES V. AND FRANCIS I.

1. WE resume the detail of the history of Europe at the beginning of the sixteenth century; previously remarking, that the Germanic empire continued for above fifty years in a state of languid tranquillity, from the time of Albert II., the successor of Sigismund, during the long reign of Frederick III., whose son Maximilian acquired, by his marriage with Mary duchess of Burgundy, the sovereignty of the Netherlands. Maximilian was elected emperor in 1493; and, by establishing a perpetual peace between the separate Germanic states, laid the foundation of the subsequent grandeur of the empire.

2. Philip, archduke of Austria, son of Maximilian, married Jane the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile; and of that marriage the eldest son was Charles V., who succeeded to the throne of Spain in 1516, and who, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, preferred his claim to the vacant imperial throne. He had for his competitor Francis I. of France, who had distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese, and the adjustment of the contending interests of the Italian states. The German electors, afraid of the exorbitant power both of Charles and of Francis, would have rejected both, and conferred the imperial crown on Frederick duke of Saxony; but this extraordinary man declined the proffered dignity, and his counsel determined the election in favour of Charles of Austria (1519).

3. Charles V. and Francis I. were now declared enemies, and their mutual claims on each other's dominions were the subject of perpetual hostility. The emperor claimed Artois as part of the Netherlands. Francis prepared to make good his right to the Two Sicilies. Charles had to defend Milan, and support his title to Navarre, which had been wrested from France by his grandfather Ferdinand. Henry VIII. of England was courted by the rival monarchs, as the weight of England was sufficient to turn the scale, where the power of each was nearly balanced.

4. The first hostile attack was made by Francis on the kingdom of Navarre (1521), which he won and lost in the course of a few months. The emperor attacked Picardy, and his troops at the same time drove the French out of the Milanese. On the death of Leo X., Charles placed his tutor, Cardinal Adrian, on the papal throne (1522); and by the promise of elevating Wolsey, the minister of Henry VIII., to that dignity on the death of Adrian, gained the alliance of the English monarch in his war against France.

5. At this critical time Francis imprudently quarrelled with his best general, the Constable Bourbon, who, in revenge, desert-

ed to the emperor (1523), and was by him invested with the chief command of his armies. The imperial generals were far superior in abilities to their opponents. The French were defeated at Biagrasa, and Charles was carrying everything before him in Italy, when Francis entered the Milanese, and retook the capital; but, in the subsequent battle of Pavia (1525), his troops were entirely defeated, and the French monarch became the Constable Bourbon's prisoner, which he communicated to his mother by letter in these words, "Madame, all is lost, except our honour."

6. The emperor made no advantage of his good fortune. By the treaty of Madrid, Francis regained his liberty in the following year, on yielding to Charles the dutchy of Burgundy, and the superiority of Flanders and Artois. He gave his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of these conditions; but the states refused to ratify them, and the failure was compromised for a sum of money.

7. On a renewal of the war, Henry VIII. took part with France, and Charles lost an opportunity of obtaining the sovereignty of Italy. The papal army in the French interest was defeated by the Constable Bourbon, and the pope himself made prisoner; but Bourbon was killed in the siege of Rome (1527), and Charles allowed the pope to purchase his release.

8. After the conclusion of the peace of Cambray (1529), Charles visited Italy, and received the imperial diadem from Pope Clement VII. The Turks having invaded Hungary, the emperor marched against them in person, and compelled the sultan Solymán, with an army of 300,000 men, to evacuate the country. He soon after embarked for Africa, to replace the dethroned Muley Hassan in the sovereignty of Tunis and Algiers, which had been usurped by Hyradin Barbarossa; and he achieved the enterprise with honour. His reputation exceeded at this period that of all the sovereigns of Europe, both for political ability, for real power, and the extent and opulence of his dominions.

9. Francis was glad to ally himself even with the Turks, to cope with the imperialists; and Barbarossa invaded Italy: but the troops of Charles prevented the co-operation of the French, and separately defeated and dispersed the allied powers; while another army of the imperialists ravaged Champagne and Picardy.

10. In the interval of a truce, which was concluded at Nice (1538), for ten years between the rival monarchs, Charles passed through France to the Netherlands, and was entertained by Francis with the most magnificent hospitality. He had promised to grant to the French king his favourite desire, the investiture of Milan; but failing to keep his word, the war was renewed with double animosity (1542). The French and Turkish fleets attacked Nice, but were dispersed by the Genoese admiral, *Andrea Doria*. In Italy the French were victorious in the

battle of Cerizoles, but drew no benefit from this partial advantage. The imperialists, on the whole, had a decided superiority; and France must have been undone, had not the disorders of Germany, from the contending interests of the Catholics and Protestants, forced the emperor to conclude the treaty of Crépi with Francis (1544); who, at the same time, purchased a peace with Henry VIII., who had once more taken part with his rival. Francis died soon after (1547); a prince of great spirit and abilities, and of a generous and noble mind, unfortunate only from the necessity of struggling against a power which overmatched him both in policy and in resources.

11. A short time before this period was founded (1535) the order of the Jesuits (or the Society of Jesus), by Ignatius Loyola, which was approved of and confirmed by the pope in 1540. The principle of the order (besides the three vows of poverty, chastity, and monastic obedience, which are common to all the orders of regulars) was implicit obedience and submission to the pope. The brethren were not confined to their cloisters, but allowed to mix with the world; and thus, by gaining the confidence of princes and statesmen, they were enabled to direct the policy of nations to the great end of establishing the supreme authority of the Holy See. The wealth they accumulated, the extent of their power, and the supposed consequences of their intrigues to the peace of nations, excited at length a general hostility to their order; [and the institution was totally suppressed and abolished by Pope Clement XIV. in 1773. In 1801, Pius VII. re-established the order for Russia only; and in 1814, for re-establishment throughout the whole earth.]

12. If Charles V. aimed at universal empire, he was ever at a distance from the object of his wishes. The formidable confederacy of the Protestants to preserve their liberties and their religion, gave him perpetual disquiet in Germany. He never could form his dominions into a well-connected body, from the separate national interests of the Spaniards, Flemish, and Germans; and even the imperial states were divided by their jealousies, political and religious. The hostilities of foreign powers gave him continual annoyance. He found in Henry II., the successor of Francis, an antagonist as formidable as his father. His cares and difficulties increased as he advanced in life, and at length entirely broke the vigour of his mind. In a state of melancholy despondency, he retired from the world (to the monastery of St. Justus in Placentia) at the age of fifty-six, resigning first the kingdom of Spain to his son Philip II. (1556), and afterwards the imperial crown in favour of his brother Ferdinand, who was elected emperor, 24th February, 1558. His death was hastened by his monastic severities, and occurred on the day after the rehearsal of the recemorial of his own obsequies, Sept. 21, 1558.*

* Robertson gives the following account of this singular and extraordinary end of

SECTION IV.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

1. PREVIOUS to the reign of Maximilian I., the Germanic empire was subject to all the disorders of the feudal governments. The general diets of the states were tumultuous and indecisive, and their constant wars with each other kept the whole in anarchy and barbarism. Wenceslaus, in 1383, endeavoured to remedy these evils by the enactment of a general peace; but no effectual means were taken for securing it. Albert II. attempted to accomplish the same end, and had some success. He divided Germany into six circles, each regulated by its own diet. But the jealousies of the states prompted them constantly to hostilities, which there was no superior power sufficient to restrain.

2. At length, however, Maximilian I. succeeded in procuring that solemn enactment (drawn up at the diet of Worms in 1495) which established a perpetual peace among the Germanic states, under the cogent penalty of the aggressor being treated as a common enemy. He also obtained the establishment of the Imperial Chamber, for the settlement of all differences, [which sat at first at Spire, and afterwards at Wetzlar. It was composed of a chief or head, called the Judge of the Chamber, and of a certain number of assessors chosen from among the jurists and independent nobility. The institution of the Aulic Council, another sovereign court of the empire, followed soon after that of the Imperial Chamber. Its origin is generally referred to the diet of Cologne (1512).] Of the same date also was the plan of dividing the empire anew into ten circles, each sending its representatives to the Imperial Chamber, and bound to enforce the public laws through its own territory. A regency was appointed to subsist in the intervals of the diet, composed of twenty members, over whom the emperor presided.

3 These regulations, however wise, would probably have failed of their end, but for the influence of the house of Austria, which for three centuries continued to occupy the imperial throne. The ambition and policy of Charles V.

so remarkable a man. "He ordered his tomb to be erected in the chapel of the monastery. His domestics marched thither in formal procession, with black tapers in their hands. He himself followed in his shroud. He was laid in his coffin with much solemnity. The service for the dead was chanted; and Charles joined in the prayers which were offered up for the rest of his soul, mingling his tears with those which his attendants shed, as if they had been celebrating a real funeral. The ceremony closed with sprinkling holy water on the coffin, in the usual form; and all the assistants retiring, the doors of the chapel were shut. Then Charles rose out of the coffin, and withdrew to his apartment, full of those awful sentiments which such a singular solemnity was calculated to inspire. But either the fatiguing length of the ceremony, or the impression which the image of death left on his mind, affected him so much that next day he was seized with a fever. His feeble frame could not long resist its violence; and he expired on the twenty-fifth of September, after a life of fifty-eight years, six months, and twenty-five days."

would have been dangerous to the freedom of the German princes, had not the new system of preserving a *balance of power* in Europe, made these princes find allies and protectors sufficient to traverse the emperor's schemes of absolute dominion. He attained, however, an authority far beyond that of any of his predecessors. The succeeding emperors imitated his policy, but without his talents, and therefore found yet stronger obstacles to their encroachments on the freedom of the states.

4. The Germanic liberties were finally settled by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, which fixed the emperor's prerogatives, and the privileges of the states. The constitution of the empire was not framed for the ordinary ends of government, the prosperity and happiness of the people. It regarded not the rights of the subjects, but only the independence of the several princes; and its sole object was to maintain each in the enjoyment of their sovereignty, and prevent usurpations and encroachments on each others' territories. It had no relation to the particular government of the states, each of which had its own laws and constitution—some more free, and others more despotic.

5. The general diet had the power of enacting the public laws of the empire. It consisted of three colleges, the electors, the princes, and the free cities. All such public laws, and all general measures, were the subject of the separate deliberation of the electoral college, and that of the princes. When jointly approved by them, the resolution was canvassed by the college of the free cities, and, if agreed to, became a *placitum* of the empire. If approved finally by the emperor, it was a *conclusum*, or general law. If disapproved, the resolution is of no effect. Moreover, the emperor must be the proposer of all general laws. Still further, no complaint or request could be made by any of the princes to the diet, without the approbation of the elector archbishop of Mentz, who might refuse it at his pleasure. These constitutional defects were the more hurtful in their consequences from the separate and often contending interests of the princes, who had all the rights of sovereignty, the power of contracting foreign alliances, and were frequently possessed of foreign dominions of far greater value than their imperial territories.

6. The Germanic constitution had, however, in some respects, its advantages. The particular diets of each circle tended to unite those princes in all matters of national concern, whatever might be the discordance of their individual interests. The regulations made in those diets make up for the want of a general legislative power. Besides the circular diets, the electors, the princes, the free cities, the Catholics, and the Protestants, held their particular diets, when their common interests required it; and these powers balanced each other. Considered, therefore, solely in the light of a league of several independent princes and states associating for their common benefit, the Germanic consti-

tution had many advantages in promoting general harmony, securing the rights of its members, and preventing the weak from being oppressed by the strong.*

SECTION V.

OF THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND, AND THE REVOLUTION IN DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

1. THE age of Charles V. is the era of great events and important revolutions in the history of Europe. It is the era of the reformation of religion—of the discovery of the New World—and of the highest splendour of the fine arts in Italy and the south of Europe. Of each of these great objects we shall treat in order; and, first, of the Reformation.

The voluptuous taste and splendid projects of Pope Leo X. demanding large supplies of money (particularly for the building of St. Peter's at Rome), he instituted through all the Christian kingdoms a sale of indulgences, or remittances from the pains of purgatory. This traffic being abused to the most shocking purposes, Martin Luther, an Augustine friar of undaunted resolution, took upon him to preach against it, and to inveigh with acrimony against the power (the pope) which authorized it. He found many willing hearers, particularly in the electorate of Saxony, of which the prince Frederick was his friend and protector. Leo X. condemned his tenets by a papal bull, which only increased the zeal and indignation of the preacher. In a book he published, called *The Babylonish Captivity*, he applied all the scriptural attributes of the whore of Babylon to the papal hierarchy, and attacked with equal force and virulence the doctrines of transubstantiation, purgatory, the celibacy of the priests, and the refusal of wine in the communion to the people. The book being condemned to the flames, Luther took upon him to burn the pope's bull of excommunication, and the decretals, at Wittemberg (1520).

2. One of the first champions who took up the pen against Luther was Henry VIII. of England, whose book (*A Treatise in Defence of the Seven Sacraments*), presented to Pope Leo, procured him the title, now annexed to the crown, of "Defender of the Faith." The rest of Europe seemed to pay little attention to these rising controversies. Charles V., studious of the friend-

* The confederation of independent states which comprised the German empire, continued until 1805, when it was dissolved by the treaty of Presburg; and on the establishment of the confederation of the Rhine by Napoleon in 1806 (of which he made himself the protector), Francis II. relinquished the title of emperor of Germany, and assumed that of emperor of Austria, as Francis I. By the treaty of Vienna (1815), a new confederation of the German states was entered into, which will be particularised when treating of that period.

ship of the pope, took part against Luther, and summoned him to answer for his doctrines in the diet of Worms (1521). The Reformer defended himself with great spirit, and, aided by his friend the elector, made a safe escape into Saxony, where the mass was now universally abolished, the images destroyed, and the convents shut up. The friars and nuns returned to the world, and Luther took a nun for his wife (1526). Nor did these secularized priests abuse their new freedom; for their manners were decent, and their lives exemplary.

3. Erasmus has justly censured the impolicy of the Catholic clergy in their modes of resisting and suppressing the new doctrines. They allowed them to be discussed in sermons before the people, and employed for that purpose, furious and bigoted declaimers, who only increased and widened differences. They would not yield in the most insignificant trifle, nor acknowledge a single fault; and they persecuted with the utmost cruelty all whose opinions were not agreeable to their own standard of faith. How wise is the counsel of Lord Bacon! "There is no better way to stop the rise of new sects and schisms, than to reform abuses, compound the lesser differences, proceed mildly from the first, refrain from sanguinary persecutions, and rather to soften and win the principal leaders, by gracing and advancing them, than to enrage them by violence and bitterness."—(*Bac. Mor. Ess., Sect. 1, Ess. 12.*)

4. Switzerland followed in the path of reformation: Zuinglius of Zurich (1519) preached forth the new tenets with such zeal and effect, that the whole canton were his converts; and the senate publicly abolished the mass, and purified the churches. Berne took the same measures with yet greater solemnity, after a discussion in the senate which lasted two months. Bale imitated the same example. Others of the cantons armed in defence of their faith; and in a desperate engagement, in which the Protestants were defeated, Zuinglius was slain by the Catholics, in the battle of Cappel, 1531.

5. Lutheranism was now making its progress towards the north of Europe. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were at this time governed by Christiern II., the Nero of the north. The Swedes, reluctantly submitting to the yoke, were kept in awe by Troll, archbishop of Upsal, a faithful minister of the tyrant in all his schemes of oppression and cruelty. On intelligence of a revolt, the king and his primate, armed with a bull from Pope Leo X., massacred the whole body of the nobles and senators, amidst the festivity of a banquet (1520). Gustavus Vasa, grand-nephew of Charles Canutson, formerly king of Sweden, escaped from this carnage, and concealed himself in the mines of Dalecarlia. By degrees assembling a small army, he defeated the generals of Christiern, whose cruelties at length determined the united nations to vindicate their rights by a solemn sentence of deposition. The tyrant fled to Flanders; and Frederick, duke of Holstein, was

elected sovereign of the three kingdoms; though Sweden, adhering to her heroic deliverer, and the heir of her ancient kings, acknowledged alone the sovereignty of Gustavus Vasa (1523). The bull of Leo X., and its bloody consequences, were sufficient to convert Sweden and Denmark to the tenets of the reformed religion. Gustavus enjoyed his sceptre many years in peace (till 1560), and contributed greatly to the happiness and prosperity of his kingdom.

6. As early as 1525, the states of Saxony, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, and the cities of Strasburg and Frankfort, had embraced the doctrines of the Reformation. Luther had now a species of spiritual control, which he exercised by the medium of a synod of six reformers. His successful example gave rise to reformers of different kinds, whose doctrines were less consonant to reason or good policy. Two fanatics of Saxony, Storck and Muncer, condemned infant baptism (hence termed Anabaptists). They preached up universal equality and freedom of religious opinion; but, with singular inconsistency, attempted to propagate their doctrines by the sword. They were defeated at Mulhausen (1525), and Muncer died on a scaffold; but the party afterwards acquired new courage (1534). They surprised Munster, expelled the bishop, and anointed for their king a tailor, named Jack of Leiden, who defended the city with the most desperate courage, but fell at length, with his party, under the superior force of regular troops (1535). The Anabaptists, thus sanguinary in their original tenets and practices, have long ago become peaceable and harmless subjects.

7. The united power of the pope and emperor found it impossible to check the progress of the Reformation. The diet of Spires (1525) proposed articles of accommodation between the Lutherans and Catholics. Fourteen cities of Germany, and several of the electors, protested formally against those articles; and hence the Lutheran party acquired the name of *Protestants*. They presented to the assembly at Augsburg (1530) a confession of their faith, drawn up by Melancthon, which is the standard of the Protestant doctrines.

8. The virtuous lives and conduct of the Protestant leaders, compared with those of the higher clergy among the Catholics, formed a contrast very favourable to the progress of the Reformation. The solemn manner in which the states of Switzerland, and particularly Geneva, had proceeded, in calmly discussing every point of controversy, and yielding only to the force of rational conviction, attracted the respect of all Europe. John Calvin, a Frenchman, becoming a zealous convert to the new doctrines, was the first who gave them a systematic form by his *Institutions*, and enforced their authority by the establishment of synods, consistories, and deacons. The magistracy of Geneva gave these ordinances the authority of the law; and they were adopted by six of the Swiss cantons by the Protestants of France,

and the Presbyterians of Scotland and England. The ablest advocates of Calvin will find it difficult to vindicate him from the charge of intolerance, and the spirit of persecution; but these, which are the vices or defects of the individual, attach not in the least to the doctrines of the Reformation, which are subject to the test of reason, and can derive no blemish or dishonour from the men who propagated them, or even the motives which might influence some of their earliest supporters. This observation applies more particularly to the subject of the ensuing section.

SECTION VI.

OF THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND UNDER HENRY VIII. AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. WICKLIFFE (b. 1324, d. 1387), in the middle of the fourteenth century, by an attack on the doctrines of transubstantiation, indulgences, and auricular confession, and yet more by translation of the Scriptures into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the minds of the people of England for a revolution in religious opinions; but his professed followers were not numerous. The intemperate passions of Henry VIII. were the immediate cause of the Reformation in England. He had been married for eighteen years to Catharine of Spain, aunt of Charles V., by whom he had three children—one of them, Mary, afterwards queen of England; when, falling in love with Anne Boleyn, he solicited Clement VII. for a divorce from Catharine, on the score of her former marriage to his elder brother, Arthur. The pope found himself in the painful dilemma of either affronting the emperor, or mortally offending the king of England. In hope that the king's passion might cool, he spun off the time by preliminaries and negotiations; but to no purpose. Henry was resolutely bent on accomplishing his wishes. The Sorbonne and other French universities gave an opinion in his favour; and, armed with this sanction, he caused Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, to annul his marriage (1533). The repudiated queen gave place to Anne Boleyn. On this occasion, Wolsey, the minister of Henry, lost the favour of his master, by opposing, as was believed, his darling measure.
2. Clement VII., from this specimen of the wayward temper of Henry, resolved to keep well with the emperor, and issued his bull, condemnatory of the sentence of the archbishop of Canterbury. Henry immediately proclaimed himself head of the church of England. The parliament ratified his title; and the pope's authority was instantly suppressed in all his dominions (1534). He proceeded to abolish the monasteries, and confiscate their treasures and revenues, erecting out of the latter six new bishoprics (Westminster, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, and

Gloucester) and a college (Trinity College, Cambridge). The immoralities of the monks were sedulously exposed; the forgery of relics, false miracles, &c., held up to the popular scorn.

3. Yet Henry, though a reformer, and pope in his own kingdom, had not renounced the religion of Rome: he was equally an enemy to the tenets of Luther and Calvin, as to the pope's jurisdiction in England. Inconstant in his affections, and a stranger to all humanity, he removed Anne Boleyn from the throne to the scaffold (1536), to gratify a new passion for Jane Seymour, a maid of honour, who happily died about a year after. To her succeeded Anne of Cleves (1540), whom he divorced in nine months, to make way for Catharine Howard. She underwent the same fate with Anne Boleyn, on a similar suspicion of infidelity to his bed (1544). His sixth wife, Catharine Parr, with difficulty retained her hazardous elevation; but had the good fortune to survive the tyrant.

4. On the death of Henry VIII. (1547), and the accession of his son Edward VI., the Protestant religion prevailed in England, and was favoured by the sovereign; but he died at the early age of fifteen (1553); and the sceptre passed to the hands of his sister Mary, an intolerant Catholic, and most cruel persecutor of the Protestants. In her reign, which was but of five years' duration, above 800 miserable victims were burned at the stake, martyrs to their religious opinions. Mary inherited a congenial spirit with her husband, Philip II. of Spain, whose intolerance cost him the loss of a third part of his dominions.

5. Mary was succeeded (1558) by her sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, a Protestant, and the more zealous from an abhorrence of the character of her predecessor. In her reign, the religion of England became stationary. The hierarchy was established in its present form, by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons—the king being by law the head of the church. The liturgy had been settled in the reign of Edward VI. The canons are agreeable chiefly to the Lutheran tenets.

Of the Reformation in Scotland, we shall afterwards treat under a separate section.

SECTION VII.

OF THE DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF AMERICA.

1. **AMONG** those great events which distinguished the age of Charles V., was the conquest of Mexico by Ferdinando Cortez, and of Peru by the Pizarros. The discovery of America had preceded the first of these events about twenty-seven years; but we have postponed the mention of it till now, that the whole may be shortly treated in connexion.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, a man of enterprising spirit, having in vain solicited encouragement from his native state, from Portugal, and from England, to attempt discoveries in the western seas, applied to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, who furnished him with three small ships, ninety men, and a few thousand ducats for the charges of his voyage (1492). After thirty-three days' sail from the Canaries, he discovered San Salvador, and soon after, the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola; whence returning, accompanied by some of the natives, some presents in gold, and curiosities of the country, he was treated by the Spaniards with the highest honours, and soon supplied with a suitable armament for the prosecution of his discoveries. In his second voyage, he discovered the Caribbees and Jamaica (1493). In a third voyage, he descried the continent of America, within ten degrees of the line, towards the isthmus of Panama (1498). To this continent the geographer Americus, who, five years after, followed the footsteps of Columbus, had the undeserved honour to giving his name.

2. The inhabitants of America and its islands were a race of men quite new to the Europeans. They are of the colour of copper, and have no beard. In some quarters, as in Mexico and Peru, the Spaniards found a flourishing empire, and a people polished, refined, and luxurious. In others, man was a naked savage, the member of a wandering tribe, whose sole occupation was hunting or war. The savages of the continent were characterized alike by their cruelty to their enemies, their contempt of death, and their generous affection for their friends. The inhabitants of the islands were a milder race, of gentler manners, and less hardy conformation of body and mind. The larger animals, as the horse, the cow, were unknown in America.

3. To the inhabitants of those new discovered countries, which were believed to contain inexhaustible treasures, the Spaniards, under the pretence of religion and policy, conducted themselves with the most shocking inhumanity. The rack, the scourge, the faggot, were employed to convert them to Christianity. They were hunted down like wild beasts, or burned alive in their thickets and fastnesses. Hispaniola, containing three millions of inhabitants, and Cuba, containing above six hundred thousand, were, in a few years, absolutely depopulated. It was now resolved to explore the continent; and Ferdinando Cortez, with eleven ships and 617 men, sailed for that purpose from Cuba in 1519. Landing at Tabasco, he advanced, though with a brave opposition from the natives, into the heart of the country. The state of Tlascala, after ineffectual resistance, became the ally of the Spaniards; and on their approach to Mexico, the terror of their name had paved the way for an easy conquest.

4. The Mexican empire, though founded little more than a century before this period, had arisen to great splendour. Its sovereign, Montezuma, received the invaders with the reverence

due to superior beings. But a short acquaintance opened the eyes of the Mexicans; and finding nothing in the Spaniards beyond what was human, they were daring enough to attack, and put to death a few of them. The intrepid Cortez immediately marched to the palace with fifty men, and putting the emperor in irons, carried him off prisoner to his camp. The astonished Mexicans submitted to every term, and agreed to redeem their sovereign by the surrender of all the imperial treasures.

5. Velasquez, governor of Cuba, jealous of Cortez, attempted to supersede him, by despatching a superior army to the continent; but the latter defeating his troops, compelled them to join his own banners. In an attack from the Mexicans for the rescue of their sovereign, Montezuma, having offered to mediate between the Mexicans and their enemies, was indignantly put to death by one of his own subjects. The whole empire, under its new sovereign, Guatimozin, was now armed against the Spaniards; and while the plains were covered with their archers and spear-men, the lake of Mexico was filled with armed canoes. To oppose the latter, the Spaniards built a few vessels under the walls of their city, and soon evinced their superiority on both elements to their feeble foe. The monarch was taken prisoner by the officers of Cortez; and refusing to discover his treasures, was stretched naked on burning coals. Soon after, on the discovery of a conspiracy against the Spaniards, the wretched Guatimozin, with all the princes of his blood, were executed on a gibbet. This was the last blow to the power of the Mexicans, and Cortez was now absolute master of the whole empire.

6. In the same year (1527), Diego d'Almagro, and Francis Pizarro, with 250 foot, sixty horse, and twelve small pieces of cannon, landed in Peru, a large and flourishing empire, governed by an ancient race of monarchs, named Incas. The inca Atabalipa receiving the Spaniards with reverence, they immediately required him to embrace the Christian faith, and surrender all his dominions to the emperor Charles V., who had obtained a gift of them from the pope. The proposal being misunderstood, or received with hesitation, Pizarro seized the monarch as his prisoner, while his troops massacred 5000 of the Peruvians on the spot. The empire was now plundered of prodigious treasures in gold and precious stones; but Atabalipa, being suspected of concealing a part from his insatiable invaders, was solemnly tried as a criminal, and strangled at a stake.

7. The courage of the Spaniards surpassed even their inhumanity. D'Almagro marched 500 leagues through continual opposition to Cusco, and penetrated across the Cordilleras into Chili, two degrees beyond the southern tropic. He was slain in a civil war between him and his associate Francis Pizarro, who was soon after assassinated by the party of his rival. At this time (1545) the Spaniards discovered the inexhaustible silver mines of *Potosi*, which they compelled the Peruvians to work for

their advantage. They are now wrought by the negroes of Africa. The native Peruvians, who are a weakly race of men, were soon almost exterminated by cruelty and intolerable labour. The humane bishop of Chiapa remonstrated with success to Charles V. on this subject, and the residue of this miserable people have been since treated with more indulgence.

8. The Spanish acquisitions in America belonged to the crown, and not to the state: they were the absolute property of the sovereign, and regulated solely by his will. They were governed by the three viceroys of Mexico, Peru, and Terra Firma, who exercised supreme civil and military authority over their provinces. There were eleven courts of audience for the administration of justice, with whose judicial proceedings the viceroys could not interfere; and their judgments were subject to appeal to the Royal Council of the Indies, whose jurisdiction extended to every department, ecclesiastical, civil, military, and commercial. A tribunal in Spain, called *Casa de la Contratacion*, regulated the departure of the fleets, and their destination and equipment, under the control of the Council of the Indies.

9. The gold and silver of Spanish America, though the exclusive property of the crown of Spain, has, by means of wars, marriages of princes, and extension of commerce, come into general circulation, and has greatly increased the quantity of specie, and diminished the value of money over all Europe.

SECTION VIII.

POSSESSIONS OF THE OTHER EUROPEAN NATIONS IN AMERICA.

1. THE example of the Spaniards excited a desire in the other nations of Europe to participate with them in the riches of the new world. The French, in 1557, attempted to form a settlement on the coast of Brazil, where the Portuguese had already established themselves from the beginning of the century. The colony was divided by faction, and was soon utterly destroyed by the Portuguese. It is one of the richest of the American settlements, both from the produce of its soil, and its mines of gold and precious stones.

2. The Spaniards were in possession of Florida, when the French attempted to colonize it in 1564, but without success. The French then established a settlement in Canada, and founded Quebec in 1608; but the colony was perpetually subject to attack from the English. In 1629, the French had not a foot of territory in America. Canada has been repeatedly taken by the English, and restored by different treaties to the French; but since 1760, it has been permanently a British settlement. The French drew their greatest advantages from the islands of

St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, and Martinico. From their continental possessions of Louisiana, and the settlements on the Mississippi, which they sold to the United States in 1803 (for 60 millions of francs), they never derived any solid benefit.

3. The Dutch have no other settlement on the continent of America, but Surinam, a part of Guiana; and in the West Indies, the islands of Curagoa and St. Eustatius. The Danes possess the inconsiderable islands of St. Thomas and Santa Cruz.

4. The British had extensive settlements on the continent of America, and still possess the greater number of the West India islands. England derived her right to her settlements in North America from the first discovery of the country by Sebastian Cabot in 1499, a few years after the discovery of South America by Columbus; but there were no attempts to colonize any part of the country till about a century afterwards, when Sir Walter Raleigh planted the colony of Virginia (1584), so named in honour of his Queen. Nova Scotia was planted under James I., and New-England in the reign of Charles I., chiefly by the refugee Puritans. New-York and Pennsylvania were in the hands of the Dutch till conquered by the English in the reign of Charles II., who granted a gift of the latter province, with a charter of privileges, to William Penn the Quaker. Maryland was colonized in the time of Charles I. by English Catholics. The Carolinas were settled in the reign of Charles II. Georgia was not colonized till the reign of George II. The Floridas were ceded to Britain by Spain, and Canada by France, at the peace of Paris, in 1763. The discontent which soon after broke out in the New-England colonies, and extended to the others southward, was occasioned by the attempt of the British parliament to tax them without their consent; and, being persisted, in gave rise to the revolutionary war (1775), and the declaration of their independence, July 4, 1776. Since that time, the United States of North America have increased more rapidly in population and wealth than any other nation that ever existed.

SECTION IX.

OF THE STATE OF THE FINE ARTS IN EUROPE IN THE AGE OF LEO X.

1. In enumerating those great objects which characterized the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth century, we remarked the high advancement to which the fine arts attained in Europe in the age of Leo X. The strong bent which the human mind seems to take in certain periods to one class of pursuits in preference to all others, as in that age to the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, may be in part accounted

for from moral causes ; such as the peaceful state of a country, the genius or taste of its sovereigns, and their liberal encouragement of those arts ; the general emulation that arises where one or two artists are of confessed eminence ; and the aid which they derive from the studies and works of each other. These causes have doubtless great influence, but do not seem entirely sufficient to account for the phenomenon. The operation of such causes must be slow and gradual. In the case of the fine arts, the transition from obscurity to splendour was rapid and instantaneous. From the contemptible mediocrity in which they had remained for ages, they rose at one step to the highest pitch of excellence.

2. The arts of painting and sculpture were buried in the West under the ruins of the Roman empire. They gradually declined in the latter ages, as we may perceive by the series of the coins of the lower empire. The Ostrogoths, instead of destroying, sought to preserve the monuments of taste and genius. They were even the inventors of some of the arts dependent on design, as the composition of Mosaic. But, in the middle ages, those arts were at a very low ebb in Europe. They began, however, to revive a little about the end of the thirteenth century. Cimabue (the father of modern painting), a Florentine, from the sight of the paintings of some Greek artists, in one of the churches, began to attempt similar performances, and soon excelled his models. His scholars were Giotto, Gaddi, Tasi, Cavallini, and Stephano Fiorentino ; and these formed an academy at Florence in 1350.

3. The works of these early painters, with some fidelity of imitation, had not a spark of grace or elegance ; and such continued to be the state of the art till towards the end of the fifteenth century, when it arose at once to the summit of perfection. Raphael painted at first in the hard manner of his master, Perugino ; but soon deserted it, and struck at once into the noble, elegant, and graceful ; in short, the imitation of the *antique*. This change was the result of genius alone. The ancient sculptures were familiar to the early painters, but they had looked on them with cold indifference. They were now surveyed by other eyes. Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Leonardo da Vinci, were animated by the same genius that formed the Grecian Apelles, Zeuxis, Glycon, Phidias, and Praxiteles.

4 Nor was Italy alone thus distinguished. Germany, Flanders, and Switzerland, produced, in the same age, artists of consummate merit. Before the notice of these, we shall briefly characterize the schools of Italy.

5. First in order is the school of Florence, of which the most eminent master was Michael Angelo (b. 1474, d. 1563). His works are characterized by a profound knowledge of the *anatomy* of the human figure, perhaps chiefly formed on the contemplation of the ancient sculptures. His paintings exhibit the

grand, the sublime, and terrible; but he drew not from the antique its simple grace and beauty.

6. The Roman school was founded by Raphael d' Urbino (b. 1483, d. 1520). This great painter united almost every excellence of the art. In invention, grace, majestic simplicity, forcible expression of the passions, he stands unrivalled, and far beyond all competition. He has borrowed liberally, but without servility, from the antique.

7. Of the school of Lombardy, or the Venetian, the most eminent artists were Titian, Giorgione, Correggio, and Parmegiano. Titian is most eminent in portrait, and in the painting of female beauty. Such is the truth of his colouring, that his figures are nature itself. It was the testimony of Michael Angelo to the merits of Titian, that, if he had studied at Rome or Florence, amidst the masterpieces of antiquity, he would have eclipsed all the painters in the world. Giorgione, with similar merits, was cut off in the flower of his youth (d. 1511). Titian lived to the age of a hundred (d. 1576). Correggio (d. 1534) was superior in colouring, and knowledge of light and shade, to all that have preceded or followed him. This knowledge was the result of study; in other painters, those effects are frequently accidental, as we observe they are not uniform. Parmegiano (d. 1540) imitated the graceful manner of Raphael, but carried it to a degree of affectation.

8. Such were the three original Italian schools. The character of the Florentine is grandeur and sublimity, with great excellence of design, but a want of grace, of skill in colouring, and effect of light and shade. The character of the Roman is equal excellence of design, a grandeur tempered with moderation and simplicity, a high degree of grace and elegance, and a superior knowledge, though not an excellence, in colouring. The character of the Venetian is the perfection of colouring, and the utmost force of light and shade, with an inferiority in every other particular.

9. To the school of Raphael succeeded the second Roman school, or that of the Caraccis, three brothers, of whom Annibal (d. 1609) was the most excellent. His scholars were, Guercino, Albano, Lanfranc, Domenichino, and Guido. Of these, though all eminent painters, the first and last were the most excellent. The elegant contours of Guercino (d. 1666), and the strength, sweetness, and majesty of Guido (d. 1642), are the admiration of all true judges of painting.

10. In the same age, the Flemish school, though of a quite different character, and inferior to the Italian, shone with great lustre. Oil painting was invented by the Flemings in the fifteenth century (ab. 1470); and, in that age, Heemskirk, Frans Floris, Quintin Matsys, and the German Albert Durer, were deservedly distinguished. Of the Flemish school, Rubens (d. 1640), though a painter of a much later age, is the chief ornament. His figures,

though too corpulent, are drawn with great truth and nature; and he possesses inexhaustible invention, and great skill in the expression of the passions. Switzerland produced Hans Holbein (d. 1554), a painter of great eminence in portrait, and remarkable for truth of colouring. Of his works, from his residence at the court of Henry VIII., there are more specimens in Britain than those of any other foreign painter.—Holland had likewise its painters, whose chief merit was the faithful representation of vulgar nature, and perfect knowledge of the mechanism of the art, the power of colours, and the effect of light and shade.

11. With the art of painting, sculpture and architecture were likewise revived in the same age, and brought to high perfection. The universal genius of Michael Angelo shone equally conspicuous in all the three departments. His statue of Bacchus was judged by Raphael to be the work of Phidias or Praxiteles.—The Grecian architecture was first revived by the Florentines in the fourteenth century; and the cathedral of Pisa was constructed partly from the materials of an ancient Greek temple. The art arrived at high perfection in the age of Leo X., when the church of St. Peter's at Rome, under the direction of Bramante, San Gallo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, exhibited the noblest specimen of architecture in the universe.

12. The invention of the art of engraving on copper by Tomaso Finiguerra, a goldsmith of Florence, is dated about 1460. From Italy it travelled into Flanders, where it was first practised by Martin Schoen of Antwerp. His scholar was the celebrated Albert Durer (d. 1528), who engraved with excellence both on copper and on wood. Etching on copper by means of aquafortis, which gives more ease than the stroke of the graver, was discovered by Parmegiano, who executed in that manner his own beautiful designs. No art underwent, in its early stages, so rapid an improvement as that of engraving. In the course of 150 years from its invention, it attained nearly to its perfection; for there has been but little proportional improvement in the last century, since the days of Audran, Poilly, and Edelinck (d. 1707).

13. The art of engraving in mezzotinto is of much later date than the ordinary mode of engraving on copper. It was the invention of Prince Rupert, about 1650. It is characterized by a softness equal to that of the pencil, and a happy blending of light and shade, and is therefore peculiarly adapted to portrait, where those requisites are most essential.

14. The age of Leo X. was likewise an era of very high literary splendour; but of the distinguished writers of that period we shall afterwards treat, in a connected view of the progress of literature and the sciences during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

SECTION X.

OF THE OTTOMAN POWER IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. FROM the period of the taking of Constantinople, in the middle of the fifteenth century, the Turks were a great and conquering people. In the sixteenth century, Selim I. (the Ferocious), after subduing Syria and Mesopotamia, undertook the conquest of Egypt, then governed by the Mamelukes, a race of Circassians, who had seized the country in 1250, and put an end to the government of the Arabian princes, the posterity of Saladin (1517). The conquest of Egypt by Selim made little change in the form of its government. It professed to own the sovereignty of the Turks, but was in reality still governed by the Mameluke Beys.

2. Solymán (the Magnificent), son of Selim, was, like his predecessors, a great conqueror. The island of Rhodes, possessed by the Knights of St. John, was a darling object of his ambition. These knights had expelled the Saracens from the island in 1310. Solymán attacked Rhodes with 140,000 men, and 400 ships. The Rhodian knights, aided by the English, Italians, and Spaniards, made a noble defence; but, after a siege of many months, were forced to capitulate, and evacuate the island (1522), which has been the property of the Turks ever since. The commercial laws of the ancient Rhodians were adopted by the Romans, and are at this day the foundation of the maritime jurisprudence of all the nations of Europe.

3. Solymán subdued the greatest part of Hungary, Moldavia, and Wallachia, and took from the Persians Georgia and Bagdad. During his reign, the military power of the Turks was at its greatest height. His son, Selim II., took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1571. They applied to the pope for aid, who, together with Philip II. of Spain, entered into a tripple alliance against the Ottoman power. An armament of 250 ships of war, commanded by Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria, was opposed to 250 Turkish galleys in the Gulf of Lepanto, near Corinth; and the Turks were defeated, with the loss of 150 ships, and 15,000 men (1571). This great victory was soon after followed by the taking of Tunis by the same commander.

4. But these successes were of little consequence. The Ottoman power continued extremely formidable. Under Amurath II., the Turks made encroachments on Hungary, and subdued a part of Persia. Mahomet III., though a barbarian in his private character, supported the dignity of the empire, and extended its dominions. The Ottoman power declined from his time, and yielded to that of the Persians under Shah-Abbas the Great, who wrested from the Turks a large part of their lately acquired dominions.

SECTION XI.

STATE OF PERSIA AND THE OTHER ASIATIC KINGDOMS IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE great empire of Persia, in the end of the fifteenth century, underwent a revolution on account of religion. Haydar or Soofi, a religious enthusiast, established a new sect of Mahometans, which held Ali to be the successor of Mahomet instead of Omar, and abolished the pilgrimages to Mecca. The Persians eagerly embraced a doctrine which distinguished them from their enemies the Turks; and Ismael, the son of Soofi, following the example of Mahomet, enforced his opinions by the sword. He subdued all Persia and Armenia, and left this vast empire to his descendants.

2. Shah-Abbas, surnamed the Great, was the great-grandson of Ismael Soofi. He ruled his empire with despotic sway, but with most able policy. He regained the provinces which had been taken by the Turks, and drove the Portuguese from their settlement of Ormuz. He rebuilt the fallen cities of Persia, and contributed greatly to the introduction of arts and civilization. His grandson, Shah-Soofi, reigned weakly and unfortunately. In his time, Shah-Jehan, the Great Mogul, deprived Persia of Candahar; and the Turks took Bagdad in 1630. From that period the Persian monarchy gradually declined. Its sovereigns became the most despicable slaves to their own ministers; and a revolution in the beginning of the eighteenth century put an end to the dynasty of the Soofis, and gave the throne to the Afghan princes, a race of Tartars.

3. The government of Persia is almost as despotic as that of Turkey. The sovereign draws a small yearly tax from every subject, and receives likewise stated gifts on particular occasions. The crown is hereditary, with the exclusion of females; but the sons of a daughter succeed in their room. There is no other rank in Persia than that annexed to office, which is held during the monarch's pleasure. The national religion is the Mahometan, as reformed by Soofi. The sect of the Guebres preserves the religion of Zoroaster, as contained in Zendavesta and Sadder, (see *supra*, Part I., Sect. XX.) and keep alive the sacred fire.

4. The poetry of the Persians displays great fancy and luxuriance of imagery. The epic poet Firdousi is said to rival the various merits of Homer and Ariosto; and the writings of Sadi and Hafez, both in prose and poetry, are admired by all who are conversant in oriental literature.

5. *Tartary*.—From this vast tract of country sprang those conquerors who produced all the great revolutions in Asia. The Turks, a race of Tartars, overwhelmed the empire of the caliphs. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered Persia, and a great

part of India, in the tenth century. The Tartar Gengis-khan subdued India, China, Persia, and Asiatic Russia, in the beginning of the thirteenth century. Batu-khan, one of his grandsons, ravaged to the frontiers of Germany. Tamerlane, the scourge of the Turks, and conqueror of a great part of Asia, was of the race of Gengis-khan. Babar, great-grandson of Tamerlane, subdued all between Samarcand and Agra in the empire of the Mogul. The descendants of those conquerors reign in India, Persia, and China; but Tartary itself is no more than a vast desert, inhabited by wandering tribes, who follow the life of the ancient Scythians.

6. *Thibet*.—This southern part of Tartary exhibits the phenomenon of a kingdom governed by a living god, the Dalai Lama, or Great Lama, whose divinity is acknowledged not only by his own subjects, but over China and a part of India. This god is a young man whom the priests educate and train to his function, and in whose name they in reality govern the kingdom.

SECTION XII.

THE HISTORY OF INDIA.

1. **THE** earliest accounts of this great tract of civilized country are those of Herodotus, who lived about a century before Alexander the Great; and it is remarkable that the character given of the people by that early writer corresponds perfectly with that of the modern Hindoos. He had probably taken his accounts from Scylax of Cariandria, whom Darius Hystaspes had sent to explore the country. But it was not till the age of Alexander, that the Greeks had any particular knowledge of that extraordinary people. Alexander penetrated into the Punjab, where, his troops refusing to proceed, he embarked on the Hydaspes, which runs into the Indus, and thence pursued his course for above 1000 miles to the ocean. The narrative given by Arrian of this expedition was taken from the mouths of Alexander's officers; and its particulars tally yet more remarkably than those of Herodotus with the modern manners of the Hindoos.

2. India was visited by Seleucus, to whose share it fell in the partition of Alexander's empire; and Antiochus the Great, 200 years afterwards, made a short expedition thither. It is probable, too, that some small intercourse subsisted between the Greek empire of Bactriana and India; but, till the fifteenth century, no European power thought of forming any establishment in that country; though, from the age of Alexander, down to the period of the Portuguese discoveries, there had constantly been

some commercial intercourse between Europe and India, both by sea and across the desert.

3. The Mahometans, as early as 1000 A. C., had begun to establish an empire in India. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered a great part of the country, and established his capital at Ghizni, near the sources of the Indus, extirpating, wherever he came, the Hindoo religion, and establishing the Mahometan in its stead. Mohammed Ghori, in 1194, penetrated to Benares; and one of his successors fixed the seat of his empire at Delhi (1206), which afterwards continued to be the capital of the Mogul princes. The sovereignty founded by Mahmoud was overwhelmed in 1222 by Gengis-khan, as was his empire in the following century by Tamerlane, whose posterity are at this day on the throne of the Mogul empire.

4. The Mogul empire was, even in the beginning of the eighteenth century, the most powerful and flourishing of all the Asiatic monarchies, under Aurungzeb, the son of Shah-Jehan, who, though a monster of cruelty, and most despotic tyrant, enjoyed a life prolonged to nearly a hundred years, crowned with uninterrupted prosperity and success. He extended his empire over the whole peninsula of India within the Ganges.

5. The dominion of the Mogul was not absolute over all the countries which composed his empire. Tamerlane allowed the petty princes, Rajahs or Nawabs, to retain their territories, of which some of their descendants are at this day in possession. They paid a tribute to the Great Mogul, as an acknowledgment of his sovereignty, and observed the treaties agreed to by their ancestors; but they were in other respects independent princes.

6. Bengal became a part of the Mogul's empire, by conquest, in the end of the sixteenth century, and was commonly governed by a son of the Great Mogul, who had under him several inferior nawabs, the former princes of the country. Such was its condition when the British East India Company, between 1751 and 1760, conquered and obtained possession of that kingdom, together with Bahar and part of Orissa, a large, populous, and most flourishing country, containing above ten millions of inhabitants, and producing an immense revenue. The East India Company thence had the benefit of the whole commerce of the Mogul empire with Arabia, Persia, and Thibet, as well as with the kingdoms of Azem, Aracan, Pegu, Siam, Malacca, China, and many of the oriental islands.

7. [The East India Company, the most celebrated commercial association of ancient or modern times, which has now extended its sovereignty over the whole Mogul empire, with its population of upwards of 133 millions, was incorporated by royal charter from Queen Elizabeth, dated December 31, 1600, which conferred the exclusive right, for fifteen years, of trading between England and all places beyond the Cape of Good Hope and the Straits of Magellan. The first expedition, of five ships, sailed

from Torbay, on the 13th February, 1601; and did not arrive at Acheen, in Sumatra, till June 5, 1602. In 1612, the Company obtained from the court of Delhi permission to establish a factory at Surat; and in 1640, the grant of five miles of territory along the shore, and one mile inland, with permission to build Fort St. George, or Madras, which in 1658, was raised to the station of a presidency. In 1698, Calcutta, and two adjoining villages, were obtained, with the right to exercise judicial power over the inhabitants, and to erect fortifications, which were soon after constructed, and received the name of Fort William. This district was also made the seat of the presidency of Bengal. In 1717, privileges were obtained from the native authorities, which rendered the Company nearly independent, and are now regarded as the first great charter of the English in Hindostan. The subsequent invasions of India by Nadir Shah and Alemghir II., so weakened the power of the Mogul emperors, that the nawabs, or governors of provinces, began to declare themselves independent, and to contend with each other. The capture of Calcutta by the nawab of Bengal, and the imprisonment of the British garrison in the Black-Hole, where the greater number were suffocated, led to hostilities, which were terminated by the victory of Plassey; when the whole provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, were occupied by the British, which were finally confirmed to the Company by treaty, in 1765. Since that time, the British empire in India has been gradually extending and consolidating, until it embraces nearly the whole continent of India, from the Indus to the Himalaya Mountains.]

The establishment of the British dominion in India has afforded the opportunity of obtaining much instructive knowledge relative to the ancient state of that country, of which we shall give a short sketch in the following section.

SECTION XIII.

ANCIENT STATE OF INDIA; MANNERS, LAWS, ARTS AND SCIENCES, AND RELIGION, OF THE HINDOOS.

1. **THE** remains of the ancient knowledge of the Hindoos have been preserved by a hereditary priesthood, in the Sanscreeet language, long since extinct, and only known to a few of the Bramins (the priests of Brama, the supposed creator of the universe). The zeal of some learned Europeans has lately opened that source of information, whence we learn the most interesting particulars of this extraordinary people, perhaps the most early cultivators of the sciences, and the instructors of all the nations of antiquity. We shall briefly notice their singular division into castes, their civil policy, their laws, their progress in the arts and sciences, and their religion.

2. The whole body of the people was (originally) divided into four orders or castes. The highest, that of the Bramins, was devoted to religion and the cultivation of the sciences: to the second belonged the preservation of the state; they were its sovereigns and its magistrates in peace, and its soldiers in war: the third were the husbandmen and merchants: and the fourth, the artisans, labourers, and servants. These distinctions descended from generation to generation, the individuals of each class generally following the professions of their forefathers. Hence arises that permanence of manners and institutions which so singularly characterizes this ancient nation.*

3. This classification is an artificial arrangement, which could have originated only from the mind of a legislator among a polished people, completely obedient to government. It is therefore a proof of the highly civilized state of the Hindoo nation in the most remote periods of antiquity.

4. The civil policy of the Hindoos is another proof of the same fact. At the time of Alexander the Great, India was divided into large and powerful kingdoms, governed by sovereigns whose dominion was not absolute, but controlled by the superior authority of the Bramins. A system of feudalism has ever prevailed in India: the rights to lands flow from the sovereign, to whom a certain duty is payable by the class of the husbandmen, who transmit their possessions to their children under the same tenure. Strabo and Diodorus remarked among the Indians three classes of officers; one whose department was the regulation of agriculture, tanks, highways; another, which superintended the police of the cities; a third, which regulated the military department. The same policy prevails at this day under the Hindoo princes.

5. The jurisprudence of Hindostan is an additional proof of great antiquity and civilization. The Ayen-Akbery, and still more the compilation of Hindoo laws from the ancient Sanscreeet records, made by order of Warren Hastings (first British governor-general, 1774—85), contained the jurisprudence of a refined and commercial people, among whom law itself had been a study and profession.

6. Many monuments exist in India of the advanced state of the useful and elegant arts in the remotest periods of antiquity. The ancient pagodas, of vast extent and magnificence, whether cut in the solid rock, as in Elephanta and Salsette, or in the open air, as at Chillambrum and Seringham; the sumptuous residences of the Bramins; and the ancient hill-fortresses, con-

* The fixed character of the Hindoos has been very much exaggerated. Mr Colebrook, in a late paper in the Asiatic Researches, has shown that the Hindoo religion permits the change of employment; and that almost every occupation, though it may be regularly the profession of a particular class, is open to most other classes; and that, in fact, the vast majority of the Hindoo population may, and do engage, in all sorts of employment—the intermixture of the mixed classes having multiplied distinctions to an endless variety.

structed with prodigious strength and solidity, evince a great advancement in the art; as the resort of the most polished nations of antiquity to that country for cotton cloths, fine linen, and works in metal and in ivory, proves the superior state of those manufactures to all known at that time in Europe.

7. The late translations from the Sanscreeet of several ingenious compositions of high antiquity, as the dramatic piece *Sacontala*; the *Hitopadēsa*, a series of moral apologues and fables; the *Mahabarat*, an epic poem, composed above 2000 years before the Christian era,—all concur in proof of a similar advancement in literature; and we have reason to believe, from such works as are of a philosophical nature, that there is scarce a tenet of the Greek philosophy that has not been antecedently the subject of discussion among the Bramins of India.

8. The numeral ciphers, first introduced into Europe by the Arabians, were, as confessed by those authors themselves, borrowed from the Indians. It is above a century since the French philosophers evinced, by the evidence of a Siamese manuscript, containing tables for calculating the places of the heavenly bodies, the astonishing advancement made by this ancient people in the science of astronomy. A set of tables obtained lately from the Bramins by M. Gentil, goes back to an era termed *Calyougham*, commencing 3102 years before the birth of Christ. These tables are used by the modern Bramins, who are quite ignorant of the principles on which they have been constructed, and which M. Bailly has shown to be the same employed by the moderns, but with which the Greeks and Chaldeans were utterly unacquainted.

9. Lastly, From the religious opinions and worship of the Hindoos we must draw the same conclusion as from all the preceding facts. One uniform system of superstition prevades every religion of India, which is supported by the most sagacious policy, and everything that can excite the veneration of its votaries. The Bramins, elevated above every other class of men, and exclusively acquainted with the mysteries of that religion, which it is held impious for any other class to attempt to penetrate; the implicit reliance on the authority of these Bramins; the ceremonies of their worship, fitted to impress the imagination, and affect the passions; all concurred to fortify this potent superstition, and to give its priests a supreme ascendancy over the minds of the people. But those priests themselves, enlightened as they were, rejected that false theology. Their writings demonstrate that they entertained the most rational and elevated conceptions with regard to the Supreme Being and the support of the universe.

10. On the whole, there is a high probability that India was the great school from which the most early polished nations of Europe derived their knowledge of the arts, of sciences, and of literature.

SECTION XIV.

OF CHINA AND JAPAN.

1. PROCEEDING eastward in the survey of the Asiatic continent, the great empire of China (comprising about one-tenth part of the habitable globe) next solicits our attention. In the end of the tenth century, China, Persia, and the greatest part of India, were ruled by the Tartar descendants of Gengis-khan. The Tartar family of Yven, who conquered China, made no change in its laws and system of government, which had been permanent from time immemorial. Of this family there reigned nine successive monarchs, without any attempt by the Chinese to throw off the Tartar yoke. The odious and contemptible character of the last of these sovereigns at length excited a rebellion, which, in 1357, drove the Tartars from the throne; and the Chinese, for 276 years, obeyed their native princes. At that period, a second revolution gave the throne once more to the Tartars. Taking advantage of an insurrection in one of the provinces, they invaded China in 1641, and made an easy conquest. The emperor shut himself up in his palace, and, after putting to death all his family, finished the scene by hanging himself. The same Tartars occupy the throne of China at this day, and observe the same wise policy of maintaining inviolate the Chinese laws, policy, and manners. Of these we shall give a brief account in the subsequent section.

2. The empire of Japan, which consists of several large islands on the eastern coast of Asia, was discovered by the Portuguese about the middle of the sixteenth century (1542). The open and unsuspecting character of this industrious and polished people, led them to encourage the resort of foreigners to their ports; and the Spaniards, after they had obtained the sovereignty of Portugal, carried on a most beneficial trade to the coasts of Japan. The emperor zealously promoted this intercourse, till the insatiable ambition of the Spaniards gave him alarming conviction of its danger. Under the pretence of converting the Japanese from idolatry, a vast number of priests were sent into the country; and one-half of the people were speedily set at mortal variance with the other. It now became necessary to prohibit this work of conversion, under pain of death, by an imperial edict (1586). Still, however, a free trade was allowed, till 1637, when a conspiracy of the Spaniards was discovered, for dethroning the emperor, and seizing the government. An edict was issued for the expulsion of the Spaniards and Portuguese, who were mad enough to resist, till overpowered by force of arms. Since that period, all the European nations have been excluded from the ports of Japan. The Dutch only, who had been the discoverers of the conspiracy of the Spaniards, are al-

lowed the privilege of landing on one of the small islands, for the purposes of trade, after making oath that they are not of the Portuguese religion. This exclusive privilege is continued to the Dutch to the present time.

SECTION XV.

OF THE ANTIQUITY OF THE EMPIRE OF CHINA. STATE OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.

1. THE antiquity of this vast empire, and the state of its government, laws, manners, and attainments in the arts and sciences, have furnished a most ample field of controversy. Voltaire, Raynal, and other writers of similar principles, have, for the purpose of discrediting the Scriptural account of the origin of mankind, and the received notions of the age of the universe, given to the Chinese empire an immense antiquity, and a character of such high civilization, and knowledge of the sciences and arts at that remote period, as to be utterly irreconcilable with the state and progress of man as described in the books of Moses. On the other hand, it is probable that the desire of invalidating those opinions, has induced other writers of ability to go to an opposite extreme, to undervalue this singular people, and to give too little weight to any accounts which we have, either of the duration of their empire, the economy of their government and police, or of their attainments in the arts and sciences. Amidst this contrariety of sentiments, we shall endeavour to form such opinion as appears most consonant to the truth.

2. The panegyrists of the Chinese assert that their empire has subsisted above 4,000 years, without any material alteration in its laws, manners, language, or even fashion of dress; in evidence of which, they appeal to a series of eclipses, marking contemporary events, all accurately calculated, for 2155 years before the birth of Christ. As it is easy to calculate eclipses backwards from the present day to any given period of time, it is thus possible to give to a history, fictitious from beginning to end, its chronology of real eclipses. This proof, therefore, amounts to nothing, unless it were likewise proved that all those eclipses were actually recorded at the time when they happened; but this neither has been, nor can be done; for it is an allowed fact, that there are no regular historical records beyond the third century before the Christian era. The present Chinese are utterly ignorant of the motions of the celestial bodies, and cannot calculate eclipses. The series mentioned has therefore, in all probability, been calculated by some of the Jesuits, to ingratiate themselves with the emperors, and flatter the national

vanity. The Jesuits have presided in the tribunal of mathematics for above 200 years.

3. But if the authentic annals of this empire go back even to the third century before Christ, and record at that time a high state of civilization, we must allow that the Chinese are an ancient and early polished people, and that they have possessed a singular constancy in their government, laws, and manners. Sir William Jones, no bigoted encomiast of this people, allows their great antiquity and early civilization; and, with much apparent probability, traces their origin from the Hindoos. He appeals to the ancient Sanscreeet records, which mention a migration from India of certain of the military class termed *Chinas*, to the countries east from Bengal. The stationary condition of the arts and sciences in China, proves that these have not originated with that people; and many peculiarities of the manners, institutions, and popular religion of the Chinese, have a near affinity with those of the Hindoos.

4. The government of China is that of an absolute monarchy. The patriarchal system pervades the whole, and binds all the members of this vast empire in the strictest subordination. Every father is absolute in his family, and may inflict any punishment, short of death, on his children. The mandarin of the district is absolute, with the power of life and death over all its members; but a capital sentence cannot be inflicted without the emperor's approbation. The emperor's power is absolute over all the mandarins, and every subject of the empire. To reconcile the people to this despotic authority, the sovereign alone is entitled to relieve the wants of the poor, and to compensate public calamities, as well as the misfortunes of individuals. He is therefore regarded as the father of his people, and even adored as a benevolent divinity.

5. Another circumstance which conciliates the people to their government, is, that all honours in China are conferred according to merit, and that chiefly literary. The civil mandarins, who are the magistrates and judges, are appointed to office according to their measure of knowledge and mental endowments. No office or rank is hereditary, but may be aspired to by the meanest of the people. The penal laws of China are remarkably severe, but their execution may be remitted by the emperor. The judicial tribunals are regulated by a body of written laws of great antiquity, and founded on the basis of universal justice and equity. The emperor's opinion rarely differs from the sentences of those courts. One tribunal judges of the qualification of the mandarins; another regulates the morals of the people, and the national manners; a third is the tribunal of censors, which reviews the laws, the conduct of the magistrates and judges, and even that of the emperor himself. These tribunals are filled by an equal number of Chinese and Tartars.

6. It has been observed that the sciences have been stationary

in this empire for many ages; and they are at this day extremely low, though far beyond the attainments of a barbarous people. The language of the Chinese, [more than anything besides, stamps them an aboriginal people. It has no resemblance whatsoever to any other language, living or dead, ancient or modern. It has neither borrowed nor lent anything to any other nation or people now in existence, excepting to those who are unquestionably of Chinese origin.] It is very defective, and seems to oppose the prosecution of speculative researches. It has no regular inflections, and can with difficulty express abstract ideas. We have remarked the ignorance of the Chinese in mathematics and astronomy. Of physics they have no acquaintance, beyond the knowledge of apparent facts. They never ascend to principles, nor form theories. Their knowledge of medicine is extremely limited, and is blended with the most contemptible superstition. Of anatomy, they know next to nothing; and in surgery, they have never ventured to amputate a limb, or to reduce a fracture.

7. The state of the useful and elegant arts has been equally stationary as that of the sciences. They have attained many ages ago to a certain point of advancement, which they have never gone beyond. The Chinese are said to have manufactured glass for 2000 years; yet at this day it is inferior in transparency to the European, and it is not used in their windows. Gunpowder they are reported to have known from time immemorial; but they never employed it in artillery or firearms, till taught by the Europeans. Printing they are said to have invented in the age of Julius Cæsar; yet they know not the use of moveable types, but print from blocks of wood. When first shown the use of the compass in sailing, they affirmed that they were well acquainted with it, but found no occasion to employ it. The art of painting in China is mere mechanical imitation, without grace, expression, or even accuracy of proportions. Of the rules of perspective, they have not the smallest idea. In sculpture, as in the figures of their idols, the Chinese artists seem to delight in distortion and deformity. Their music is not regulated by any principles of science: they have no semitones; and their instruments are imperfect and untunable. The Chinese architecture has variety, lightness, and sometimes elegance, but has no grandeur or symmetrical beauty.

8. Yet, in some of the arts, the Chinese have attained to great perfection. Agriculture is carried, in China, to the highest pitch of improvement. The emperor himself is the chief of the husbandmen, and annually holds the plough with his own hands. Hence, and from the modes of economizing food, is supported the astonishing population of 333,000,000, or 260 inhabitants to every square mile of the empire. The gardening of the Chinese, and their admirable embellishment of rural nature, have of late been the object of imitation in Europe, but with far inferior success. The manufacture of porcelain is an original invention

of this people; and the Europeans, though excelling them in the form and ornament of the utensils, have never been able to attain to the excellence of the material.

9. The morals of the Chinese have furnished much subject both of encomium and censure. The books of Confucius are said to contain a most admirable system of morality; but the principles of morals have their foundation in human nature, and must, in theory, be everywhere the same. The moral virtues of a people are not to be estimated from the books of their philosophers. It is probable that the manners of the superior classes are, in China, as elsewhere, much influenced by education and example. The morals of the lower classes are said to be beyond measure loose, and their practices most dishonest; nor are they regulated by any principle but selfish interest, or restrained but by the fear of punishment.

10. The religion of the Chinese is different in the different ranks of society. There is no religion of the state. [They have no sabbatical institution; no congregational worship; no external forms of devotion, of petition, or thanksgiving, to the Supreme Being: the emperor,—and he alone, being high-priest, and the only individual who stands between Heaven and the people, having the same relation to the former that the latter are supposed to bear to him,—performs the sacred duties, according to the ancient ritual, and at certain fixed periods; but the people have no concern with them. He alone officiates at all the solemn ceremonies for propitiating Heaven, or expressing a grateful sense of its benefits.] The emperor and the higher mandarins profess the belief of one Supreme Being, *Changti*, whom they worship by prayer and thanksgiving, without any mixture of idolatrous practices. They respect the Lama of Thibet as the high-priest or prophet of this religion. A prevalent sect is that of *Tao-sse*, who believe in the power of magic, the agency of spirits, and the divining of future events. A third is the sect of *Fo* (or Buddh), derived from India, whose priests are the Bonzes, and whose fundamental doctrine is, that all things rose out of nothing, and finally must return to it; that all animals are first to undergo a series of transmigrations; and that, as man's chief happiness is to approach as near as possible to a state of annihilation in this life, absolute idleness is more laudable than occupation of any kind. A variety of hideous idols are worshipped by this sect.

11. The Chinese have their sacred books, termed *Kings*; as the *Yking*, *Chouking*, &c.; which, amidst some good moral precepts, contain much mystery, childish superstition, and absurdity. These are chiefly resorted to for the divining of future events, which seems the *ultimatum* of research among the Chinese philosophers. The observation of the heavenly bodies is made for that purpose alone: the changes of the weather, the performance or omission of certain ceremonies, the occurrence of certain

events in particular times and places, are all believed to have their influence on futurity, and are therefore carefully observed and recorded; and the rules by which those omens are interpreted, are said to have been prescribed by the great Confucius, the father of the Chinese philosophy, 500 years before the Christian era.

12. We conclude, on the whole, that the Chinese are a very remarkable people; that their government, laws, policy, and knowledge of the arts and sciences, exhibit unquestionable proofs of great antiquity and early civilization; but that the extraordinary measure of duration assigned to their empire by some modern writers, rests on no solid proofs; nor are their government, laws, manners, arts, or scientific attainments, at all deserving of that superlative and most exaggerated encomium which has been bestowed on them.

SECTION XVI.

M. BAILLY'S THEORY OF THE ORIGIN OF THE SCIENCES AMONG THE NATIONS OF ASIA.

1. THE striking resemblance in many points of character between the Chinese and ancient Egyptians has led to the conjecture, either that they were originally the same people, the one being a colony of the other, or that the two nations have had, at some remote period, such intercourse, either by conquest or in the way of commerce, as to occasion a reciprocal communication of manners, arts, and knowledge of the sciences. M. de Mairan has remarked the following points of similarity:—The Egyptians and Chinese had the same permanence of manners, and abhorrence of innovations: they were alike remarkable for the respect entertained by children to their parents: they were equally averse to war: they had the same general but superficial knowledge in the arts and sciences, without the ability to make great attainments: they both, in the most ancient times, used hieroglyphics: the Egyptians had a solemn festival, called the *Feast of the Lights*; the Chinese have the *Feast of the Lanterns*: the features of the Chinese are said to resemble the ancient Egyptian statues; certain characters engraven on an Egyptian bust of Isis were found to belong to the Chinese language.

2. M. Bailly has taken a wider range of observations, and has, from a review of the manners, customs, opinions, and attainments, of the Indians, Persians, Chinese, Chaldeans, and Egyptians, discovered many circumstances of similarity between all those nations, equally remarkable as the foregoing. He has thence formed the singular hypothesis, that the knowledge common to the whole of those nations has been derived from the

same original source—namely, a most ancient and highly cultivated people of Asia, of whose memory every trace is now extinct, but who have been the parent instructors of all around them. “If we find,” says he, “in the scattered huts of peasants, fragments interspersed of sculptured columns, we conclude for certain, that these are not the work of the rude peasants who reared those huts, but that they are the remains of a magnificent building, the work of able architects, though we discover no other traces of the existence of that building, and cannot ascertain its precise situation.”

3. The sciences and arts of the Chinese have been stationary for 2000 years. The people seem never to have availed themselves of the lights of their ancestors. They are like the inhabitants of a country recently discovered by a polished people, who have taught them some of their arts, and left their instruments among them. The knowledge they possess seems to have been imported, and not of original growth; for it has never been progressive.

4. The Chaldæans were an enlightened people at the commencement of the Babylonish empire, 2000 years before the Christian era. They were great astronomers, and understood the revolutions of comets, which became known to the moderns only in the sixteenth century. The Chaldæans were probably the remains of this ancient people. The Bramins of India believe in the unity of God, and the immortality of the soul; but with these sublime tenets they intermix the most childish absurdities. They derived the former from wise instructors; the latter were the fruit of their own ignorance. The Sanscreeet—a most copious and elegant language, and the vehicle of all the Indian knowledge and philosophy—has been a dead tongue for thousands of years, and is intelligible only to a few of those Bramins. It was probably the language of that great ancient people.

5. The coincidence or similarity of customs concurs to establish the same idea. The custom of libation was common to the Tartars and Chinese, as well as to the Greeks and Romans. All the Asiatic nations had festivals of the nature of the Roman *Saturnalia*. The tradition of the deluge is diffused among all those nations: the tradition of the giants attacking heaven is equally general. The doctrine of the metempsychosis was common to the Egyptians, Greeks, Indians, Persians, Tartarians, and Chinese. The religion of all these nations is founded on the profound, though erroneous doctrine, of the two principles, an universal soul pervading all nature, and inert matter on which it acts. A conformity in a true doctrine is no proof of mutual communication or concert; but it is ingeniously remarked, that a conformity in a false doctrine comes very near to such a proof.

6. The Egyptians, Chaldæans, Indians, Persians, and Chinese,

all placed their temples fronting the east, to receive the first rays of the sun. The worship of the sun has been the religion of that ancient people. All the above-mentioned nations had a cycle, or period of sixty years, for regulating their chronology: they all divided the circle into 360 degrees, the zodiac into twelve signs, and the week into seven days; and the Chinese, Indians, and Egyptians, designed those days by the names of the planets ranged in the same order. The long measures of the ancient nations had all one common origin.

7. "These singular coincidences," argues M. Bailly, "can be accounted for only by three suppositions—1. That there was a free communication between all those ancient nations: 2. That those circumstances of coincidence are so founded in human nature, that the most unconnected nations could not fail to hit upon them: or, 3. That they have been all derived from a common source." He rejects the two former suppositions, as contrary, in his opinion, to fact; and rests, of course, upon the last.

8. The precise situation of this great ancient people, M. Bailly does not pretend to fix with certainty; but he offers probable reasons for conjecturing that it was about the 49th or 50th degree of north latitude, in the southern regions of Siberia. Many of the European and Asiatic nations attribute their origin to that quarter, which thence appears to have been extremely populous. Nitre, a production from animal substances, is more abundant there than in any other region. The observations of the rising of the stars, collected by Ptolemy, must have been made in a climate where the longest day was sixteen hours, which corresponds to the latitude mentioned. No European nation in that latitude understood astronomy in those early periods. The veneration of the Indians and Chinese for the Lama of Thibet is a proof that the religion of those nations originated in that quarter.

9. But does that region exhibit any traces of having been ever inhabited by a polished people? It is here that the theory of M. Bailly seems to be least supported by proof. He observes, that ancient mines have been discovered in those parts of Siberia, which have been wrought to great extent in a period beyond all record of tradition; that ancient sepulchres have been found, in which there were ornaments of gold of skilful workmanship: but the facts specified are so few as to warrant no positive inference.

10. This theory is an amusing specimen of the author's ingenuity; but it has not the force to draw our assent to his conclusions. We have noticed it, as specifying many curious facts relative to the manners and attainments of the ancient nations, and as furnishing strong evidence of the common origin of mankind. The nations above mentioned, though many of them remote from each other, were all connected, as links of a chain, by proximity; whence it is easy to conceive that knowledge should diverge from a centre to a very distant circumference.

M. Bailly has given no reasonable grounds for fixing that centre in the position he has assigned it.

SECTION XVII.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. OF SPAIN.—REVOLUTION OF THE NETHERLANDS, AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.

1. AFTER a short survey of the Asiatic kingdoms, we return to the history of Europe in the sixteenth century.

In the time of Philip II., the son and successor of Charles V., the balance of power in Europe was sustained by Spain, France, England, and Germany, all at this time highly flourishing and respectable, either from the talents of their sovereigns, or their internal strength. Elizabeth, Henry IV., and Philip II., were all acute and able politicians, though the policy of the last partook more of selfish craft, and had less of the manly and heroic, than that of either of his rival monarchs. Philip was at this time sovereign of Spain, the Two Sicilies, Milan, and the Netherlands. He had likewise, for a few years, the power of England at his command, by his marriage with Mary, the elder sister and predecessor of Elizabeth.

2. Pope Paul IV., jealous of the power of Philip, formed an alliance with Henry II. of France, to deprive the Spaniards of Milan and the Sicilies. Philip, with the aid of the English, defeated the French at St. Quintin in Picardy (1557), and hoped, from this signal victory, to force the allies into a peace; but the Duke of Guise recovered the spirits of the French by the taking of Calais (1558) from the English, which they had now possessed for 200 years. Another great victory, however, obtained by Philip near Gravelines, brought on the treaty of Catteau-Cambresis in 1559, by which the French surrendered to Spain no less than eighty-nine fortified towns in the Low Countries and in Italy.

3. Philip, now at ease from foreign disturbances, began to be disquieted on the score of religion. An intolerant bigot by nature, he resolved to extirpate every species of heresy from his dominions. The Netherlands, an assemblage of separate states, were all subject to Philip, under various titles; and he had conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, on William, prince of Orange, a count of the German empire. The Lutheran and Calvinistic opinions had made great progress in those quarters; and Philip, determining to repress them, established the Inquisition with plenary powers, created new bishops, and prepared to abrogate the ancient laws, and give the provinces a new political institution. These innovations creating alarm

and tumult, the Duke of Alva was sent into Flanders to enforce, implicit submission (1567).

4. The Inquisition began its bloody work, and many of the principal nobility of the provinces were its victims. The minds of the people were completely alienated, and a chief was only wanting to give union to their measures. The Prince of Orange, who was himself under sentence of the Inquisition, found no difficulty in raising an army; and having easily reduced some of the most important garrisons, the states of Holland and Zealand proclaimed him Stadtholder, and abjured the Roman faith (1570). Eighteen thousand persons perished by the hands of the executioner in the course of the Duke of Alva's government, which was of five years' duration. His place was supplied by Requesens, a man of humanity, but bound to obey his inhuman master, who, on the death of Requesens, sent his brother, Don John of Austria, to endeavour to regain the revolted states (1576); but the attempt was fruitless. The whole seventeen provinces had suffered alike from the tyranny of their sovereign; but particular jealousies, and a difference in religion, prevented a general union; and only the seven northern provinces, the population of which were principally Protestant, asserted their independence by a solemn treaty formed at Utrecht, 23d of January, 1579; by which it was agreed that they should defend their liberties as one united republic; that they should jointly determine in matters of peace and war, establish a general legislative authority, and maintain a liberty of conscience in matters of religion. These seven United Provinces were, Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Overijssel, and Groningen. William, prince of Orange, was declared their chief magistrate, general, and admiral, by the title of *Stadtholder*; but it was not until 1581 that the independence of the republic was formally declared.

5. Philip vented his indignation by a proscription of the Prince of Orange, offering 25,000 crowns for his head; and he compassed his revenge, for this illustrious man was cut off by an assassin (1584). His son Maurice was elected stadtholder in his room, and sustained his important part with great courage and ability. With a slender aid from Elizabeth, who delighted to traverse the plans of Philip, this infant commonwealth accomplished and secured its independence, which it has maintained, till its subjugation in the time of Napoleon, the miserable fruit of faction and political disunion.

6. The ten Catholic provinces (Brabant, Limburg, Luxembourg, Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Namur, Zutpen, Antwerp, and Mechlin), whose discontents were expressed only by murmur and complaint, were soothed by a new charter from Philip, confirming their privileges; while at the same time he took every possible measure to prevent any attempt on their part to throw off the yoke.

7. [*When the insurrection in the Netherlands commenced,*

there was no intention of establishing a republic, but merely to maintain the political privileges of the provinces; nor did they absolutely shake off the Spanish authority until reconciliation was considered hopeless. Then the sovereignty of the provinces was repeatedly offered to different foreign princes, and federation was forced upon them as a necessity. Some of the provinces even retained the Stadtholders or governors appointed by Philip, at the head of their administration. Everything continued on the ancient footing. Hence that admixture of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy, which prevailed in those countries; and hence, too, the feeble tie which united them to each other, and which would probably have speedily broken, if Holland had not, by its riches and its power, obtained an influence and preponderance which maintained the union. From the date of their independence, the commerce of the Confederate States increased every day; and in 1595 they extended it as far as India. The Dutch East India Company was established in 1602, which, supported by a formidable marine, soon acquired vast influence in the East by their conquests over the Portuguese, whom they dispossessed by degrees of all their principal settlements in India. In 1609, the king of Spain was reduced to the necessity of concluding a peace for twelve years with the United Provinces; after which, the war was revived for twenty-five years, to the disadvantage of the Spaniards. During that time, the republicans extended their commerce to all parts of the globe, while their marine increased in strength and importance; which raised them to the rank of being the second maritime power, and gave them a decisive influence over the political affairs of Europe. By the treaty of Munster, in 1648, the king of Spain acknowledged the United Provinces as free and independent states, and gave up to them all the places which they had seized in Brabant, Flanders, and Limburg; as also the possessions in the East and West Indies, in Asia, Africa, and America.]

SECTION XVIII.

OF THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

1. THE treaty of confederation of the seven United Provinces, framed in 1579, and solemnly renewed in 1583, was declared to be, by its nature, indissoluble. Each province thereby preserved its own laws, its magistrates, its sovereignty, and its independence. They formed, however, one body politic, having renounced the right of making separate alliances and treaties, and established a general council, with power of assembling the states, and regulating the common affairs of the republic. The

assembly of the States-General was originally held only twice a year, but became afterwards a perpetual council.

2. In all matters which regarded not the general interest of the nation, each of the states or provinces was in itself a republic, governed by its own laws and magistrates, and possessing a supreme legislative authority. The deputies from each of the towns formed the council of the province, in which was vested its separate government; and these deputies were regulated by the instructions of their constituents. The votes of the majority of deputies decided in the provincial council in all matters which regarded not the general interest of the nation.

3. The great council of the States-General always met in assembly at the Hague, and was composed of the deputies from the seven provinces, of which Holland sent three, Zealand and Utrecht two, and the others one; each deputy being regulated by the council of his province. A majority of voices was here decisive, unless in the great questions of peace, war, and alliance, in which unanimity was requisite. The disadvantage of this constitution was the delay and difficulty in the execution of public measures. All the towns, and all the nobles of a province had to deliberate, and instruct their deputy, before the States-General could take the matter under consideration. This great defect was in some measure corrected by the power and influence of the stadtholder.

4. The stadtholder was commander-in-chief of the sea and land forces, and disposed of all the military employments. He presided over all the courts of justice, and had the power of pardoning crimes. He appointed the magistrates of the towns, from a list made by themselves; received and named ambassadors; and was charged with the execution of the laws. He was supreme arbiter in all differences between the provinces, cities, or other members of the state.

5. William, the first stadtholder, did not abuse these high powers; nor did his successors, Maurice and Henry Frederick. But under William II., the states became jealous of an exorbitant authority in their chief magistrate; and on his death, in 1650, the office was for some time abolished. In that interval, the republic was almost annihilated by the arms of Louis XIV.; and, sensible of their error, they restored the office of stadtholder (1672), in the person of William III., prince of Orange, who retrieved the fortunes and honour of his country. In gratitude for his services, the dignity was made hereditary in his family—a solecism in the government of a republic. On the death of William (king of England, in 1702) without issue, the office was once more abolished for twenty years, when it was again restored, declared hereditary in the family of Orange, and descendible even to the issue of a daughter (1747); the only restrictions being, that the succeeding prince shall be of the Protestant religion, and neither king nor elector of the German empire.

SECTION XIX.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. CONTINUED.

1. THE loss of the Netherlands was in some degree compensated to Philip II., by the acquisition of the kingdom of Portugal. Muley Mahomet, king of Fez and Morocco, dethroned by his uncle, Muley Moluc, solicited the aid of Don Sebastian, king of Portugal, to regain his throne. Sebastian landed with an army in Africa, but was defeated by the Moors, and slain (1578); and the contending Moorish princes perished in the same engagement. Sebastian was succeeded by his grand-uncle, Don Henry, a cardinal and archbishop, who died after a reign of two years. The competitors for the crown were Don Antonio, prior of Crato, and Philip II., paternal and maternal uncles of the last sovereign; the Duke of Savoy; Catharine de Medicis, queen-dowager of France; the Duke of Parma; the Duke of Braganza, married to the grand-daughter of king Emanuel, who by law had the best right to the crown; and even Pope Gregory XIII. claimed the kingdom as a fief of the Holy See. Don Antonio alone supported his claim by arms; but Philip defeated his rival in a decisive engagement at sea, and, without farther opposition, took possession of the throne of Portugal (1580).

2. Elizabeth of England had warmly espoused the cause of the revolted Netherlands; and her admiral, Sir Francis Drake, had taken some of the Spanish settlements in America. To avenge these injuries, the Invincible Armada, of 150 ships of war, 77,000 men, and 3,000 pieces of cannon, was equipped by Philip, for the invasion of England. The English fleet, of 108 ships, attacked them in the night, and burned and destroyed a great part of the squadron: a storm, which drove them on the rocks and sands of Zealand, completed their discomfiture; and only fifty shattered vessels, with 6,000 men, returned to Spain (1588). [Few enterprises were ever more deeply weighed, few preceded by more immense preparations, and none perhaps attended with a more unfortunate issue. When intelligence of the fate of the armament arrived at Madrid, the conduct of Philip was truly magnanimous. "God's holy will be done," said he: "I thought myself a match for the power of England, but I did not pretend to fight against the elements."]

3. The restless spirit of Philip II. was engaged at the same time in the reduction of the Netherlands, the project for the invasion of England, and the dismembering the kingdom of France. The last scheme was as ineffectual as we have seen the two former. It was defeated at once by the conversion of Henry IV. to the Catholic religion. The policy of Philip had nothing in it *great* or generous. His restless ambition was fitted to embroil *Europe*, but he had not the judgment to turn the distresses he

occasioned to his own advantage. In his own kingdoms, as in his domestic life, he was a gloomy and inhuman tyrant. Yet, from the variety and magnitude of his designs, the power by which they were supported, and the splendour of his dominion, the character of Spain was high and respectable in the scale of the nations of Europe. Philip died in the seventy-second year of his age, and forty-second of his reign (1598). [He was a turbulent and most ambitious prince, in whom there was nothing either great or generous. He was fitted to harass and embroil Europe, without judgment to turn the distresses which he occasioned to his substantial advantage. In his own kingdoms, he was a cruel, a gloomy, and an inhuman tyrant; in his family, a harsh and suspicious master, a barbarous husband, and an unnatural father. In the last of these characters, he signalized himself by the murder of his queen and of his eldest son, the unfortunate Don Carlos, who had conceived an involuntary passion for his mother-in-law, a beautiful princess of equal age with himself.]

SECTION XX.

STATE OF FRANCE IN THE END OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY, UNDER HENRY II., FRANCIS II., CHARLES IX., HENRY III., AND HENRY IV.

1. THE reformed religion had made the greater progress in France from the impolitic persecution it sustained from Henry II., the son and successor of Francis I., who, though he aided the Protestants of Germany in resisting the despotism of Charles V., showed no mercy to their brethren in his own kingdom.

2. On the death of Henry II. (1559), the conspiracy of Amboise was planned by the Prince of Condé, for the destruction of the Duke of Guise, who ruled the kingdom under Francis II., and to whose intolerance and cruelty the Protestants attributed all their calamities. Guise owed his ascendancy chiefly to the marriage of his niece, Mary Queen of Scots, with the young monarch; and the detection of this conspiracy, the massacre of its principal leaders, and the barbarous punishment of all who partook in it, while they confirmed his power, served only to increase the rancour of the contending parties.

3. Francis II. died after a reign of a year (1560), and was succeeded by his brother, Charles IX., a boy of ten years of age. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, who had no other principle but the love of power, was equally jealous of the influence of the Condés and the Guises. An ecclesiastical assembly, held by her desire at Poissy, gave toleration to the Protestants to exercise their worship through all France, without the walls of the towns. The zeal or the imprudence of the

Duke of Guise infringed this ordinance; and both parties flew to arms. The Admiral Coligni headed the troops of the Protestants, who were aided by 10,000 Germans from the Palatinate; and Philip of Spain, to increase the disorders, sent an army to the aid of the Catholics.

4. The horrors of civil war were aggravated by murders and assassinations. The Duke of Guise was the victim of the frantic zeal of an enthusiast, and was assassinated while engaged in the siege of Orleans. His death was an irreparable loss to his party; and after many desperate engagements, with various success, a treacherous peace, intended only to lull the Protestants, was agreed to by the Catholics; and Coligni, with the chiefs of the Protestant party, were invited to court, and received by the queen-mother and her son with the most extraordinary marks of favour; among the rest, Henry of Navarre, who had been placed at the head of the Protestants, to whom the young monarch had given his sister in marriage. Such were the preparatives to the infernal massacre of St. Bartholomew. On the night of the 23d of August, 1572, at the ringing of the matins-bell, a general massacre was made by the Catholics of all the Protestants throughout the kingdom of France. Charles IX., a monster of cruelty, assisted himself in the murder of his own subjects. [It is computed that upwards of 70,000 Protestants were massacred in Paris and the provinces.]

5. Amidst these horrors, Henry, duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., was elected king of Poland, but had scarcely taken possession of his throne when he was called to that of France, by the death of its execrable sovereign (1574). The weakness of the new monarch, Henry III., was ill fitted to compose the disorders of the kingdom. Equally bigoted and profligate, he became the scorn of his subjects, and the dupe of the contending factions.

6. The Protestant party was now supported by the Prince of Condé and young Henry of Navarre, descended from Robert of Bourbon, a younger son of Lewis IX. The Duke of Alençon, the king's brother, had likewise joined their party. The Catholics, to accumulate their strength, formed a bond of union, termed the *League*, nominally for defence of the state and its religion, but in reality for usurping all the powers of government, and suppressing the Protestant faith. Of this dangerous association, Henry III., with the weakest policy, declared himself the head, and thus the avowed enemy of one-half of his subjects. He saw his error when too late; and dreading the designs of the Duke of Guise, and his brother the Cardinal of Lorraine, whose authority had superseded his own, he basely rid himself of his fears by procuring their assassination. This vicious and contemptible tyrant, after a reign of fifteen years, was himself assassinated by Jacques Clement, a Jacobin monk, from the frenzy of fanaticism; and with him ended the line of Valois (1589)

7. The race of Valois was succeeded by that of the Bourbons, who were descended from Robert, count of Clermont, younger son of St. Louis IX. Henry IV. of Navarre; the first of this dynasty, was related in the twenty-first degree to his immediate predecessor. He had been educated a Protestant by his mother, the daughter of Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre, and at the age of sixteen had been declared the head of the party of the Huguenots—his uncle the prince of Condé, and the Admiral Coligni, acting as his lieutenants. His first military enterprises were unsuccessful. Invited to Paris, at the peace of 1572, to marry the sister of Charles IX., he narrowly escaped from the massacre of St. Bartholomew, but remained three years a prisoner. On the death of Charles, he again took the field against the army of the Catholic League, which he defeated in the battle of Coutras (1587), and still more signally in that of Arques (1589). After the death of Henry III., he won the celebrated battle of Ivry (1590); and being acknowledged sovereign of France by all but the party of the League, then in possession of Paris, he laid siege to the city, which must have capitulated, but for the succours of Philip II., under the Duke of Parma. Religion was the sole cause of the disunion of France, and the only obstacle to the acknowledgment of Henry's title by the greatest part of his subjects. At the earnest persuasion of Rosni (duke of Sully), himself a Protestant, Henry was prevailed on to declare himself a Catholic. He abjured at St. Denis, and was crowned king at Chartres (1594). He soon after took possession of Paris; but it cost him several years, both of war and negotiation, before he gained the whole of his kingdom, exhausted as it was, and ruined by civil discord.

8. The subsequent life of this excellent prince was devoted to the reparation of these misfortunes. After forcing Philip II. to conclude the advantageous peace of Vervins (1598), his whole attention was bestowed on the improvement of his kingdom, by reforming its laws, regulating its finances, encouraging agriculture and manufactures, enlarging and embellishing the cities, and finally by successfully reconciling the partisans of the contending religions. In all his beneficial schemes, he found an able assistant in his minister, the Duke of Sully, who has beautifully depicted the life and character of his master. It is in his memoirs that we see not only the great designs, but the private virtues, the engaging and amiable manners, of this illustrious man, who, while he was the arbiter of the contending powers of Europe, was the indulgent father of a happy people.

9. The period of the splendour and happiness of France was of short duration. Henry IV., worthy to be immortal, was assassinated at the age of fifty-seven (4th May, 1610) by Ravallac, an insane fanatic. He meditated, at the time of his death, the great project of a perpetual peace between the states of Europe—a design highly characteristic of the benevolent mind of its author,

but which the weakness of mankind, and the impossibility of reasoning with nations as with wise individuals, must for certain have rendered abortive.

SECTION XXI.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND OF SCOTLAND IN THE REIGNS OF ELIZABETH AND MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

1. ELIZABETH, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, succeeded to the throne on the death of her sister Mary (1558); and England attained to a high degree of splendour under the rule of this great and politic princess, whose talents enabled her to pursue the true interests of her people, while her vigorous and intrepid mind led her to take an important part in maintaining the balance of power in Europe. While she encouraged at home every useful art and manufacture, she colonized a great part of North America, supported the infant republic of Holland against its tyrannical enemy, humbled the pride of Spain in the defeat of its Invincible Armada, and assisted Henry IV. in the recovery of his kingdom. It was her fortune to have the aid of the most able ministers, and her merit to place her confidence in their counsels.

2. Had Elizabeth been equally endowed with the virtues of the heart as with the powers of the mind, she would have shone the most illustrious character in the annals of modern Europe. Her conduct to her cousin, Mary Queen of Scots, has fixed an indelible stain on her character. Mary, the daughter of James V., and great-granddaughter of Henry VII., educated in France, and married, when very young, to the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II., had imprudently assumed the arms and title of Queen of England, by the persuasion of her maternal uncles, the Guises. The pretence was the illegitimacy of Elizabeth, declared by Henry VIII. on his divorce from Anne Boleyn. This false step laid the foundation of all the miseries of the Queen of Scots.

3. The Reformation (during the minority and absence of Mary in France), was going forward in Scotland with the most ardent zeal. The Earls of Argyll, Morton, Glencairn, and others, its chief promoters, had, by their own authority, suppressed the worship of the mass over a great part of the kingdom. The Catholic bishops, by an ill-judged persecution of the Reformers, greatly increased the number of their proselytes. They began to muster their strength; and, headed by John Knox, a disciple of Calvin—a virtuous man, but of the most furious and intemperate zeal—threw down the altars and images, expelled the priests, and demolished the churches and monasteries. Acting now in arms, and in open defiance of government, the queen-mother, Mary of Guise, attempted, by the aid of French troops, to reduce

her Protestant subjects to submission; and these applied for aid to the Protestant queen of England. Elizabeth sent an army and a fleet to their assistance. The death of the queen-mother was followed by a capitulation, by which it was agreed that the French should evacuate Scotland, and that Mary should renounce all pretension to the crown of England. The Protestant religion, under Presbyterian forms, was now established in the room of the Catholic (1560).

4. In this situation of Scotland, Mary, at the age of eighteen, on the death of her mother, and of her husband, Francis II., returned to her hereditary kingdom (1561), having fortunately escaped an English fleet which Elizabeth had despatched to take her prisoner on her passage. Her misfortunes began from that hour. Her Protestant subjects regarded their Catholic queen with abhorrence, and looked up to her enemy, Elizabeth, as their support and defender. That artful princess had secured to her interest the very men on whom the unsuspecting Mary placed her utmost confidence—her bastard brother the Earl of Murray, the Earl of Morton, and Secretary Lethington. The views of Murray aimed at nothing less than his sister's crown; and the obstacles which opposed his criminal ambition served only to render his attempts more daring and more flagitious.

5. The marriage of Mary with her cousin, Lord Darnley (1565), son of the Earl of Lennox, who stood in the same relation to Elizabeth, was not relished by that princess. Encouraged by her ministers, Randolph and Cecil, Murray formed a conspiracy to seize and imprison the queen, and put to death her husband, and usurp the government; and, on the detection of his designs, attempted to support them by open rebellion. Defeated, exiled, pardoned, and loaded with benefits by his injured sovereign, he persevered in the same atrocious purposes, till he at length accomplished them.

6. The spouse of Mary had incurred her resentment by his vices and his follies. Taking advantage of the weakness of his mind, Murray, Morton, and Lethington, had rendered him jealous of the partiality of Mary for her foreign secretary, the aged Rizzio, and engaged him in the barbarous act of murdering this ill-fated wretch at the feet of the queen, to whose garments he clung for protection (1566). The purpose of this shocking outrage was to procure the abortion of Mary, then big with child, and possibly her death; or, should she survive, to alienate completely her affections from her husband, and thus to render her suspected of the design they had projected of cutting him off by assassination. In the latter purpose they succeeded. The house which Darnley inhabited was blown up by gunpowder (1567): his body was found strangled near the place; and the report immediately prevailed, that Mary had been accessory to his murder.

7. A most imprudent step, to which she was conducted by the

same band of traitors, gave countenance to this suspicion. At the earnest recommendation of Morton and some of her chief nobility, she married the Earl of Bothwell, a man openly stigmatized as one of the murderers of her husband. He had, it is true, been absolved on trial for that crime, and had by force made himself master of her person. The plans of Murray and his associates, successful to the utmost of their wishes, were now ripe for consummation. On the pretext of the queen's guilt of murder and adultery, she was confined by Murray in the castle of Lochleven, and there compelled to resign her crown into the hands of her unnatural brother, who was to govern the kingdom as regent during the minority of her infant son (then one year old), now proclaimed king by the title of James VI. (1567). Bothwell escaped beyond seas, and died in Denmark.

8. A great part of the nation reprobated these infamous proceedings. Mary escaped from her confinement, and, at the head of an army, gave battle to the rebels at Langside; but, being defeated, she fled for shelter to the north of England (1568). Elizabeth, who had secretly taken part in all the machinations of her enemies, had now gained a great object of her ambition: she had in her hands a hated rival, and, by her support of Murray and his party, the absolute command of the kingdom of Scotland. Yet policy required some show of friendship and humanity to the Queen of Scots, who claimed as a suppliant her protection and aid. She professed her desire to do her justice, but first required that she should clear herself of the crimes alleged against her. To this Mary agreed, in the intrepidity of conscious innocence. In a conference held for that purpose, Murray openly stood forth as the accuser of his sister and queen, appealing to certain letters said to be written by her to Bothwell, plainly intimating her guilt. Copies of these letters were produced. Mary demanded the originals, boldly declaring them to be the forgeries of her enemies; but they were never produced. She retorted on Murray and Morton the charge of Darnley's murder; and the conference was broken off at the command of the queen of England, who detained Mary in close imprisonment.

9. The ungenerous policy of Elizabeth was condemned by her own subjects. The Duke of Norfolk, the first of her nobility, and, though a Protestant, favoured by the Catholic party in England, secretly projected to marry the Queen of Scots; and the discovery of these views giving alarm to Elizabeth, brought that ill-fated nobleman to the block (1572), and hastened the doom of the unfortunate Mary. Worn out with the miseries of her confinement, she privately solicited the aid of foreign princes for her deliverance. Her cause was espoused by all the Catholics of England; and some of the most intemperate of these had formed a plot to deliver her from captivity, and to place her on the throne by the murder of Elizabeth. This dangerous con-

spiracy was discovered, and its authors deservedly suffered death. The schemes of Mary for her own deliverance, were held presumptive of her acquiescence in the whole of the plot. Though an independent sovereign, she was brought to trial before a foreign tribunal, which had already decreed her fate; and being condemned to suffer death, she was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, in the forty-fifth year of her age, and nineteenth of her captivity in England (1587). Murray had long before (1570) fallen the victim of the private revenge of a gentleman whom he had injured; and Lethington poisoned himself in prison, to escape the sentence of his enemies. Morton, who succeeded Murray as regent of the kingdom, was afterwards tried, and suffered death for his concern in the murder of Darnley (1581).

10. We have noticed the formidable preparations of Philip II. for the invasion of England, and their disastrous issue in the total destruction of the Invincible Armada. The English, in their turn, made descents on the Spanish coasts; and the glory of the nation was nobly sustained by those great admirals, Raleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendish, and Hawkins. The Earl of Essex distinguished himself in those expeditions, and won the favour of Elizabeth, both by his prowess and personal accomplishments. The death of Leicester, her former favourite, and of her minister Burleigh, left Essex unrivalled in her affections, and of chief authority in the direction of her councils. Haughty and impatient of control, he disgusted the nobles; and his failure in quelling a rebellion in Ireland, gave them ground to undermine him in the favour of his sovereign. In the madness of inordinate ambition, he proposed to possess himself of the person of the queen, and compel her to remove his enemies, and acquiesce in all his measures. This treasonable enterprise brought him to the scaffold (1600).

11. From that time, Elizabeth fell into, and continued in a state of profound melancholy until her death, on the 24th of March, 1603, in the seventieth year of her age, and forty-fifth of her reign; having named for her successor James VI., king of Scotland. Her talents were great, and the firmness of her mind unequalled; yet her private character was tarnished by cruelty, hypocrisy, and an insatiable desire of admiration. Her maxims of government were despotic, and she had little regard for the liberties of her people, or the privileges of her parliaments, to whom she never allowed the liberty of disputing her commands. The actual government of England in those days, was little different from absolute monarchy. [Elizabeth had an extreme jealousy of parliamentary interference with what she considered her sovereign right, and exercised a systematic parsimony to avoid the necessity of applying for grants of money, that the power of control might not be given. During her reign of forty-five years, she only solicited eleven grants of subsidies (assessments on property), which produced altogether about £2,800,000, giv-

ing, on the average, only £66,666 a-year. And before she could obtain the last grant, a few months before her death, the Commons insisted on the abolition of various grievances, particularly of monopolies for the sale of particular merchandise, which she had sold or given to favourites, as on salt, iron, oil, wine, beer, glass, paper, &c. Elizabeth and her ministers resisted; but the firmness of the Commons showed the necessity of concession, which was made unwillingly. This was the commencement of the struggle between the crown and the House of Commons, which continued until the execution of Charles I. and the fall of the monarchy. The revenue of Elizabeth did not exceed, on the average, £500,000 a-year, which was principally derived from the rent of the crown lands, and the feudal payments on the succession to lands held of the crown. To avoid the necessity of applying to parliament for money, she made extensive sales of the crown lands, and also granted them away to her favourites, which lessened the revenue of her successor.

SECTION XXII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND IN THE REIGN OF JAMES VI., AND OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE REIGNS OF JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

1. [JAMES VI. of Scotland had the government nominally committed to him when only twelve years of age (1578), by a confederacy of the nobles opposed to the Regent Morton, whom they afterwards put to death. At that time the feudal aristocracy, which had been subverted in most nations of Europe by the policy of their princes, subsisted with full force in Scotland; and even the Reformation, which in every other country where it prevailed had added to the authority of the monarch, increased their wealth and influence. The vast territorial property (nearly one-half of the kingdom) of the Romish church was principally seized by the nobles, which the weakness of government allowed them to retain. These powerful and turbulent feudatories had kept the country in a state of anarchy by their almost constant civil wars and private feuds, from the death of James V. until towards the accession of James VI. to the throne of England. James was carefully educated by George Buchanan, one of the most learned men of the age, and a zealous promoter of the Reformation, under whose tuition he attained considerable scholarship; but his natural timidity, indecision, and indolence, unfitted him for the direction of public affairs. He early showed a predilection for favourites, to whom he committed the administration of government, which often led to national discontent. But *James's* failings were probably favourable to the re-establishment of public order, as the discontent of the nobles came to be

directed rather against the ministerial favourites than the king, who were readily abandoned when necessity required it, which led each faction in turn to suppose that the king was of their party, and induced them to abstain from violence. The same vacillating conduct, the same good-natured pliability, rendered James disposed to cultivate the good opinion of the various factions in England, in order to unite in his own behalf their different votes for the succession. James's policy was conciliation; and to gain the affections of the great body of his subjects, he established by law the Presbyterian Church, with its discipline and judicatories, which greatly tended to promote tranquillity. The most remarkable event in which he was personally concerned during his reign in Scotland, was the mysterious attempt of the Ruthvens to take his life, or gain possession of his person (1600), which led to the destruction of the house of Gowrie, and the forfeiture of their estates and honours. The severity with which the conspirators were visited, intimidated the aristocracy from any further attempts against the king, or to disturb the government. James shortly after succeeded, by hereditary right,* on the death of Elizabeth, to the throne of England; which united the two crowns, and closes the history of Scotland as a free and independent state (1603).]

2. James mounted the throne with the entire approbation of his English subjects, but he did not long preserve their affections. He became unpopular from his notions of an uncontrollable prerogative; to which unwisely proclaiming his title in his first parliament, he provoked his new subjects to question it. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the subject, and retrenchment of the powers of the crown: and during this reign the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance on the part of the people, which was destined in the next to overturn the constitution.

3. Domestic events were such as chiefly distinguished the reign of James I. A conspiracy was discovered in 1603 for subverting the government, and placing the king's cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne, in which the lords Cobham and Grey, and Sir Walter Raleigh, were principally concerned. The two former were pardoned, and Raleigh condemned, but reprieved; when, on the ground of his infringement of the peace with Spain, by unwarrantably attacking one of her American settlements, he was, after an interval of fifteen years, beheaded on his former sentence.

4. Another conspiracy followed, of a still more dangerous

* The statutes then in force vested the legal right to the throne in Lord Seymour, eldest son of the Earl of Hereford, by Lady Katherine Grey (sister of Lady Jane Grey), as heir of Mary, duchess of Suffolk, the younger sister of Henry VIII. James's hereditary pretensions were not acknowledged and ratified by parliament until March, 1604. Public expediency, therefore, determined the council of Elizabeth to set aside the will of Henry VIII. in favour of James, who was the direct heir, as descended from the elder sister of Henry.

nature, the gunpowder treason—a plot of the Catholics to destroy at one blow the king and the whole body of the parliament (1604). It was discovered, from a circumstance of private friendship, on the very eve of its accomplishment; and the principal conspirators suffered a capital punishment. The public indignation now raged against the Catholics; and the humanity of James, which sought to mitigate this fury, was as ungenerously as absurdly construed into a favour which he entertained for their religious principles.

5. It was a peculiar weakness of the king to attach himself to undeserving favourites. Such was Carre, earl of Somerset, who had no other recommendation than a handsome person; and who, after several years' exercise of all the insolence of power, fell into disgrace, on conviction of his concern in an infamous murder. His place was supplied by Villiers, afterwards duke of Buckingham, a man devoid of every talent of a minister, and odious to all ranks of the state. He planned a journey of Charles, Prince of Wales, into Spain, to court the Infanta; and, by his folly and insolence, frustrated the treaty on the brink of its conclusion.

6. Elizabeth, the only surviving daughter of James, was married to the Protestant Elector Palatine, who was dispossessed of his electorate by the emperor Ferdinand II., for imprudently accepting the crown of Bohemia, till then an appanage of the empire. James was urged by parliament to a war in defence of his son-in-law, which touched the nation both as a point of honour, and as the cause of the Protestant interest. He sent a feeble armament, which was of no service—the only military enterprise of his reign. His favourite project was a complete union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland—a measure which, however beneficial, the mutual prejudices of the two nations were as yet too violent to bear. As a preparatory step, the Episcopal hierarchy was introduced into Scotland; but this served only as the food of future commotions. [All that James could then obtain was, that the laws of each nation which were hostile to the other should be abolished, and that there should be a free commerce between them. He took the title of King of Great Britain; and the natives of each kingdom who had been, or should be born after his succession to the throne of England, were declared natural subjects of both, and entitled to all the privileges of naturalization (1606). James, like Elizabeth, was extremely jealous of the interference of parliament, and only summoned it six times (in twenty-five years), when grants of money were required, which were given sparingly on four occasions (in 1606, 1610, 1621, and 1624); and in the two latter sessions, only on consenting to concede the liberty of speech to the members, and the abolition of all monopolies. The four parliamentary grants did not produce more than about £1,440,000, or an average of £60,000 a-year during his reign. The unwillingness of parliament to grant supplies (then assessments on property),

obliged James to dispose of extensive portions of the crown lands; and his own prodigality to his favourites diminished them still farther, which lessened the future revenue. The revenue of James, from all sources, has been estimated at £600,000 a-year, which defrayed the expenses of the court and of the government.] James I. died on the 27th of March, 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign over England.

7. On an impartial estimate of the character of the succeeding monarch, Charles I., it may be allowed, that had the nation in his reign entertained the same ideas of the regal prerogative, of the powers of parliament, and of the liberty of the subject, that had prevailed for the two preceding centuries, this unfortunate prince would have reigned with high popularity. But it was his lot to mount the throne at that critical period when the public opinion had undergone an entire revolution on these topics; and, with many excellent endowments both of head and heart, he wanted that political prudence which should have taught him to yield to the necessity of the times.

8. Charles quarrelled with his first parliament (1625), on their refusal of adequate supplies for the war (which its predecessors had involved him in) in support of his brother-in-law, the Elector Palatine. Engaged to his allies, the king, dissolving the parliament, issued warrants for borrowing money of the subject. A new parliament was found equally uncomplying, and evinced its jealousy of the king by the impeachment of his minister, Buckingham; Charles avenging the insult by imprisoning two members of the House of Commons (Sir John Eliot, and Sir Dudley Digges; and one of the Lords, the Earl of Arundel). A quarrel thus began, received continual addition from new causes of offence. The levying money from the subject was enforced by billeting soldiers on those who refused to lend to the crown; and some were even imprisoned on that account. A war was undertaken against France by Buckingham's instigation—a sufficient cause of its unpopularity; and it ended in a fruitless attempt on Rochelle. The king again dissolved his parliament (1626).

9. A new parliament (the third) exhibited a spirit of determined reformation (1627). A *Petition of Right* was passed by both houses, which declared the illegality of raising money without their sanction, or enforcing loans from the subject, annulled all taxes imposed without consent of parliament, and abolished the exercise of the martial law; and Charles was obliged, with much reluctance, to give his assent to this great retrenchment of prerogatives, sanctioned by the usage of the most popular of his predecessors.

10. The taxes of tonnage and poundage (three shillings on a tun of wine, and 5 per cent. on goods imported) had usually been continued from one reign to another. On this ground, the king conceived he was warranted to levy them without a new grant; and a member of the House of Commons was imprisoned

on refusal to pay them. This arbitrary measure excited an outrageous ferment in that assembly; and the consequence was, a new dissolution of parliament (1629).

11. To avoid the occasion of new supplies, it was now a measure of necessity to make peace with France and Spain. The king persevered in levying the tonnage, poundage, and ship-money; and high fines were imposed for various offences, without trial, by authority of the Star-chamber. The legality of the tax of ship-money was disputed by John Hampden; but he was condemned by the Court of Exchequer, contrary, as was thought, to justice, and the laws of the realm (1634).

12. These discontents were increased by religious enthusiasm. Charles, by the advice of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, had relaxed the penalties against Catholics, and countenanced some innovations in the ceremonials of church worship—preludes, as they were termed, to the Popish idolatries. He had likewise imprudently attempted to introduce the liturgy of the Church of England among the Scots—measures which excited, in the latter country, the most general discontent, and produced the most violent commotions. A bond, termed the *National Covenant*, containing an oath of resistance to all religious innovations, was subscribed in Scotland by all ranks and conditions; and in a General Assembly at Glasgow, the Episcopal hierarchy (re-established by parliament in 1606) was solemnly abolished (1638). To maintain this violent procedure, the Scotch reformers took up arms; and, after seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, boldly marched into the heart of England.

13. It was now absolutely necessary to assemble a parliament, which had not been held for eleven years (1640); and the king at length saw that the torrent was irresistible, and resolved, though too late, to give it way. A bill passed for abolishing the tonnage and poundage, without consent of parliament, received the royal assent. Monopolies of every kind were abolished. A parliament was agreed to be summoned every third year. Unsatisfied with these concessions, the Commons impeached the Earl of Strafford, the king's first minister, of high-treason, together with Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who were charged, as the chief counsellors of the crown, with a design of subverting the laws and constitution of the realm. The fate of Strafford, whose trial by his peers would have terminated in his acquittal, was secured by a bill of attainder, to which the king was, with the greatest reluctance, forced to give his assent. The Commons seized that moment of anguish to obtain his consent to a decisive measure—a bill which rendered the parliament perpetual, by declaring that it should not be dissolved or adjourned, but by its own decree (1641). Strafford and Laud were both beheaded.

14. This last measure of the Commons evinced a determined

purpose to overturn the constitution. Their proceedings hitherto had the show of justice, and most of them might be vindicated on the principles of true patriotism. But from this period, their conduct was treason to their country and its government.—The last bill destroyed the equal balance of the constitution of England, and every subsequent measure was a step towards its entire annihilation.

15. The Irish Catholics took advantage of these disorders, and, with the purpose of assuming the entire command of that kingdom, and shaking off its dependence on England, attempted, in one day, to massacre all the Protestants in Ireland (1641). To extinguish this horrible rebellion, Charles consigned to the parliament the charge of the war, which they interpreted into a transference to them of the whole military powers of the crown. Under this authority, a great force was levied, and supplied with arms from the royal magazines.

16. The bishops having complained that their lives were in danger from the populace, withdrew from the House of Peers, and protested against the proceedings that should take place in their absence. They were impeached of treason by the Commons, and committed to the Tower. (They were excluded from the House of Lords by statute, 1642.) These proceedings showed the design either to overturn the throne, or reduce the regal power to a mere phantom. The patience of Charles was therefore exhausted. He caused five of the Commons to be impeached (Hampden, Haslerig, Hallis, Stroud, and Lord Kimbolton), and went in person to the house to seize them—a breach of the privilege of parliament, for which he found it necessary to atone by a humiliating message.

17. A new bill of the Commons, naming the commanders of all the fortified places, who should be responsible to parliament alone, was understood to be a declaration of war. The next step was to assume the whole legislative power, by declaring it a breach of privilege to dispute the law of the land, declared by the Lords and Commons. But the former were mere name, being entirely under the control of the latter.

18. The sword was now to decide the contest. The royal cause was supported by a great proportion of the landed interest, all the friends of the established church, and all the Catholics in the kingdom. On the side of the parliament were the city of London, and most of the greater towns, with all the dissenters and sectaries. The first campaign was favourable to the royalists. They defeated the parliamentary forces at Worcester and Edgehill (October 23, 1642), but lost the battle of Newbury (September 20, 1643).

19. The parliament now entered into a strict confederacy with the Scots, both in the articles of politics and religion; and the *Solemn League and Covenant*—a new bond, more specific in its objects than the former, and more treasonable in its purpose—was

framed at Edinburgh, for the purification of both churches, the reformation of both kingdoms, the maintenance of the privileges of king and parliament, and the bringing to justice all malignants. In consequence of this confederacy, 20,000 Scots took the field, to co-operate with the forces of the parliament.

20. Oliver Cromwell commanded at this time a regiment of horse under Lord Fairfax, general of the parliament, but in reality directed all the measures of the army. In Scotland, the royal cause was gallantly sustained by the Marquis of Montrose; but all was lost in England, by the defeat at Naseby (1645). The king's troops being entirely dispersed, he threw himself into the hands of the Scots, who basely delivered him up to the commissioners of parliament (for £400,000, which was wanted for the payment of their troops), from whom he was taken by Cromwell's orders, and conducted to the army, now the masters of the kingdom. Cromwell, entering London, assumed an absolute control over the parliament, and imprisoned all who disputed his authority. Charles, escaping from his confinement at Hampton Court, fled to the Isle of Wight, but was there detained a prisoner in Carisbrook Castle.

21. The parliament, suffering under this military usurpation, were now sincerely desirous of terminating a miserable anarchy by a treaty with the king; and, after a long negotiation, all terms were finally adjusted. Charles agreed to resign to parliament the military power, the disposal of all the offices of state, and the right of creating peers without their consent: he agreed to abolish the Episcopal hierarchy, and to establish the Presbyterian discipline; and these concessions the parliament accepted by a majority of suffrages, and declared to be a sufficient basis for the settlement of the kingdom. Cromwell instantly surrounded the House of Commons (December 6, 1648); and excluding all but his own partisans (about sixty in number, who received the appellation of *the Rump*), a second vote was passed, rescinding the former, and declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament. A court of justice was then appointed to try the king for this act of treason. The House of Lords, having unanimously rejected this decree, were immediately voted, by this junto of independents, to be a useless branch of the constitution.

22. Charles was brought to trial at Westminster Hall on the 20th January; and, refusing to acknowledge the authority of his judges, was condemned to suffer death. He was beheaded at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1649, in the forty-eighth year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign. The arbitrary proceedings of this monarch in the beginning of his reign were certainly sufficient to justify that resistance on the part of the people which at length produced its effect, in confining the regal authority within its just bounds, and securing the rational liberties of the subject. But from the period that this end was

attained, resistance ceased to be lawful. Its farther operations were criminal in the extreme. The subsequent usurpations of the Commons can no more be justified, on any constitutional principle, than the murder of the king can be defended on the score of legality, justice, or humanity. [With the death of Charles was overthrown the feudal monarchy which had prevailed in England since the Norman Conquest in 1066.]

SECTION XXIII.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

1. [THE dissolution of the monarchy followed as a natural consequence, on the execution of the king. At the commencement of the struggle, the demands of the two houses of parliament were limited to the redress of existing grievances, arising out of the abuse of the prerogative; but now, when it was over, the triumphant party refused to be content with anything less than the abolition of the old, and the establishment of a new and more popular form of government. An oligarchy, under the name of a republic, was determined on by the sixty or seventy fanatical Independents who styled themselves the Commons, as it protected them against their enemies, and enabled them to appropriate all the power, the patronage, and emoluments of office. In accordance with this decision, the head of the king had no sooner fallen on the scaffold, than a proclamation was issued, declaring it treason to give to any person the title of king, without the consent of parliament, and announcing that the supreme government was vested in the Commons. A few days after this, the abolition of the House of Peers, and of the office of king, was voted by the Commons; when it was also declared to be high-treason to acknowledge the son of the late king as successor to the throne. A council of state was next appointed, consisting of forty-one members, with powers limited in duration to twelve months, and charged with the preservation of domestic tranquillity, the disposal of the military and naval force, and all other duties of government. A new great seal was made, on one side of which was engraved the arms of Great Britain and Ireland, with this inscription, "The Great Seal of England;" and on the reverse was represented the House of Commons sitting, with this motto, "On the first year of freedom, by God's blessing restored, 1649." In place of the king's name, all public acts were given in the name of "the keepers of the liberty of England, by the authority of parliament." The fundamental laws of the nation were not changed; but the government was entirely directed by Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and Marten, who wreaked their vengeance on the most distinguished of the

royalists—the Duke of Hamilton, the Earl of Hallond, and Lord Capel, who were beheaded.]

2. The attention of the new government was then directed to Scotland, where the parliament had taken no part in these latter scenes, and had formally protested against the trial of the king. On his death, they proclaimed Charles II. their sovereign, but on the express condition of his signing the Covenant, and ratifying the Presbyterian confession of faith (which he then declined, trusting to obtain the crown unconditionally). Ireland recognised him without any conditions. The heroic Marquis of Montrose landed in the north of Scotland with a few foreign troops, and attempted to reduce the party of the Covenanters, and establish the legal authority of the king, independent of the servile restrictions with which they had fettered it; but, attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and betrayed into the hands of his enemies, who put him to death by the hands of the executioner (1650); displaying in the circumstances of his punishment all the insolence of cruelty which distinguishes revenge in the meanest of souls. Charles betook himself to Scotland, and was obliged, however reluctantly, to acquiesce in all the terms that were imposed on him.

3. Cromwell, with 16,000 men, marched into Scotland against the now royalist Covenanters, whom he defeated in the battle of Dunbar; and then, following the royal army, which retreated into England, he cut them to pieces in the decisive battle of Worcester, September 3, 1651. Charles fled in disguise through the western and southern countries, till he found an opportunity of escaping to France. Cromwell returned in triumph to London.

4. The republican parliament formed and executed great designs.* A war with Holland was most ably maintained on both sides by those great naval commanders, Blake, Van Tromp, and De Ruyter; but the advantage was greatly in favour of the English, who took above 1,600 of the Dutch ships. The parliament, proud of these successes, justly conceived that while the nation was thus powerful at sea, the land army was an unnecessary burden, and determined to reduce it. To prevent this measure, Cromwell framed a remonstrance of the army, demanding the election of a new parliament; and this meeting with no regard, he entered the House of Commons, which he had surrounded with his troops, and, declaring the parliament dissolved by his authority, forcibly turned the members out of

* These it was enabled to undertake, by the effective system of taxation which it established, particularly the monthly assessments on real and personal property, £20 of stock, or other personal estate, being assessed at the rate laid on every *tenement* shilling of yearly rent, or yearly value of land, thereby taxing both descriptions of property alike, assuming that real property yielded 5 per cent.—a principle so just as to deserve to be universally acted upon. It is to the Long Parliament we owe the first establishment of excises in this country. When imposed, it was laid on liquors only, but afterwards on other articles; and then it was solemnly declared that, at the end of the war, all excises should be abolished. The most obnoxious, as on bread and meat, were repealed, but the others retained.

doors. The republic of England, which had subsisted four years and three months, was thus annihilated in one moment, April 20, 1653

5. It was necessary, however, that there should be the appearance of a parliament. A few mean persons, of fanatical character, were chosen by Cromwell's partisans, from the different counties of England, with five from Scotland, and six from Ireland, to hold their functions for fifteen months. This assembly, termed *Barebone's Parliament*, from its leading member, a leather-seller, became the scorn of the public, and was dissolved by its own vote, after five months.

6. The government was now vested in the Council of Officers, who nominated Oliver Cromwell lord-protector of the three kingdoms; invested him with the power of making peace, war, and alliance; and authorized a standing army of 30,000 men to be kept up for the support of government. His administration was despotic, vigorous, and spirited. He maintained the honour of the nation in the war with the Dutch, compelling them to yield the honour of the flag, and to compensate to the India Company all its losses. He was successful likewise in his negotiations with France and Spain. But in his domestic government he was traversed by his parliaments, whom it cost him a continual struggle, and even violence, to keep in order. One parliament, properly prepared, voted him the regal title, which, by the counsel of his best friends, he was forced most unwillingly to refuse. In recompense of this self-denial, the parliament confirmed his title of Protector, with a fixed revenue, and decreed his right of appointing a successor. He was king in all but the name.

7. By consent of parliament, Cromwell appointed a House of Lords; but all the ancient peers declined the proffered honour. He was forced to choose them from the Commons; and thus he lost the majority in the Lower House.* His temper soured with disappointment, a prey to chagrin, and in continual fear of assassination, he fell at length into a mortal disease, and died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, 3d September, 1658.

8. Richard Cromwell, son of Oliver, succeeded, by his father's appointment, to the protectorate—a man of weak understanding and facile temper, utterly unfit for his hazardous situation, which accordingly he maintained for only a few months, resigning his office on the 22d April, 1659. His brother Henry, viceroy of Ireland, immediately followed his example; and the family of the Cromwells, which the talents of one man had elevated above the sovereigns of their country, returned once more to its original obscurity.

9. The remains of that nominal parliament which had put the

* The Commons sought to withhold the supplies from him, as they had done to Charles I., until he made concessions to them; when he dismissed them, and levied the taxes by ordinance—such was the power he possessed.

king to death, termed, in derision, *the Rump*, was now dissolved by the Council of Officers. Of these, every aspiring individual had his own separate views of ambition. Intrigue, cabal, and anarchy, were universal; and the nation, looking forward with horror to a series of calamities, began earnestly to desire the restitution of its ancient government. George Monk, commander of the army in Scotland, judged these symptoms favourable for restoring the exiled monarch to the throne of his ancestors. Marching his army into England, he declared his resolution to bring about the election of a free parliament, which all men knew to be synonymous with the restoration of the king. It was of course violently opposed by the republican party, who even attempted to excite a new civil war; but they were forced at length to acquiesce in the measure. A free parliament was assembled; and a message being presented from Charles, offering a full indemnity, complete liberty of conscience, and payment to the army of all arrears, it was received with transports of joy, and Charles II. proclaimed king, 29th May, 1660.

10. [The regular and permanent income of England, during the administration of Cromwell, was about £1,517,274; of Scotland, £143,652; and Ireland, £207,790; making together the total of £1,868,719. But when all the exactions which were made are accumulated, it appears that during the Commonwealth, in the short space of nineteen years, there was raised in England about £83,331,198, or, one year with another, £4,385,850, which was nearly five times the amount levied by Charles I., the half of which was obtained by various contributions from the land.]

SECTION XXIV.

THE REIGNS OF CHARLES II. AND JAMES II.

1. The parliament, without imposing any terms on the new sovereign, trusted implicitly to his good dispositions.* These

* It is evident that parliament then intended to re-establish the monarchy as it had existed previously to the rebellion against Charles I. All the statutes of the Long Parliament and the Commonwealth were abolished, which left to Charles II. all the prerogatives that had been enjoyed by his father. As no one cause had so eminently contributed to the dissensions in the two last reigns, as the inadequacy of the ordinary revenue, principally in consequence of the rapidly increasing depreciation in the value of money, to defray the expences of the court and of the government, parliament settled on the king an income of £1,200,000, which was about £300,000 more than had ever been raised by Charles I. Until this time the ordinary revenue of the monarchy had been derived principally from the rent of the crown lands, and the payments on the succession to property. The latter were unequal, oppressive, and vexatious in their collection, and it had often been proposed to commute them by a uniform assessment on the annual rental; but the jealousy of parliament opposed so equitable an arrangement, no doubt calculating on obtaining their abolition without compensation. In the reign of James I., it had been proposed to commute the feudal rights on the succession to estates for £500,000 a-year; but at the Restoration, notwithstanding the diminution in the value of

umane and complacent; but the character of Charles—st, luxurious, and prodigal—was neither fitted to support national honour abroad, nor to command obedience and to his domestic government. [From a total want of economy, his expenses constantly exceeded his income, which obliged him to resort to dishonourable expedients to obtain . Among others, in the second year of his reign, he purchased Dunkirk to Louis XIV. for £400,000—a measure more offensive than injurious to the nation.] A war with Holland (1664), supported at a vast expense, and maintained in desperate but indecisive engagements, [was entered upon, without suspicion that some of the supplies might be directed to the private use of the necessitous monarch. It was during this war that the great plague raged in London, and carried off 100,000 of its inhabitants (1665); and in the following year, 13,000 houses were destroyed in the great fire.] The war ended, finally, with no material benefit. By the treaty of Breda concluded in 1667, New-York was secured to the English, St. Kitts and Nevis to the Dutch, and Acadia in North America to the French.

The sale of Dunkirk, and the unsuccessful issue of the war, led to the counsel of the Earl of Clarendon, procured the exile and banishment of that illustrious man (1667). The war was scarcely concluded with Holland, when England entered into a triple alliance with her and Sweden in a triple alliance, to oppose the

It was only proposed to estimate the compensation at £100,000; and even this was evaded, for the House of Commons abolished "the court of wards and escheators, and by knights' service," and in lieu thereof granted monopolies on liquors, particularly on beer sold by retail, whilst the beer brewed for domestic use was exempt;—thus following the most objectionable example of the House of Commons for the raising of revenue; and exempting from payments those who held their lands on that condition. It has been observed, that "the govern-

ment of England, previously to the act 12, C. 2, c. 24, was a feudal monarchy, the essence of which is, that the public expense of the government, both in war and peace, shall be defrayed by the various feudatories; the deficiency, if any, being supplied out of the public property in land vested in the monarch for the time being by taxes or subsidies granted by parliament, and levied on the land and movable property of the kingdom." By that exemption of the land from the condition which it had been held from the Conquest, a complete change was made in the fundamental element of the constitution of this country. Since the Restoration, the principal has been to raise the ordinary revenue by indirect taxation, and only extraordinary supplies by taxes on property, and by loans.

During the ordinary revenue of Charles II. at £1,200,000 a-year, parliament provided for the maintenance of a regular naval or military force. The king was looked upon with apprehension or jealousy, affording a constant subject for complaint and remonstrance from parliament, and of suspicion to the public (see Con. Hist., c. 11). And as it had not then been determined to exempt the king from all taxation, the charge for the support of the various levies of troops, the building of ships, during the reign of Charles II., was still exclusively defrayed by assessments on real and personal estate, on the principle established during the reign of Henry VII. (see note, p. 430), as had been the practice from the Norman Conquest, and as one of the conditions on which estates were held of the crown. Naturally, as the expense of war was principally borne by the landholders, the king was always most desirous to terminate them; whilst in the subsequent reigns, the naval and military expenses of the state were defrayed out of the general revenue, principally raised on articles of consumption, it will be found that the House of Commons, which was almost exclusively composed of landholders, and who represented the interests of that body, was too much disposed to favour the king, and to increase the national expenditure.

progress of the arms of Louis XIV. in the Low Countries; and that object being attained, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668, the French monarch gained the English over to his interest in a new war against the Dutch, which brought their republic to the brink of destruction.

3. The domestic administration of Charles was embroiled from various causes, originating in the personal character and dispositions of the sovereign. He trusted to profligate and worthless counsellors. His arbitrary notions of government, and the partiality he showed to the Catholics, gave perpetual alarm and uneasiness to a great proportion of his subjects. Complaints resounded from every quarter; and the parliament required a *test oath* from all persons in public employment. They were obliged to take the sacrament in the established church, and to abjure the doctrine of transubstantiation. On refusal to take this oath, the king's brother, James, duke of York, was deprived of his office of high admiral (1673).

4. Titus Oates, a worthless impostor, pretended to have discovered a plot of the Catholics for assassinating the king, burning London, massacring the Protestants, and placing the Duke of York on the throne. Another villain, named Bedloe, joined his evidence to that of Oates; and on their perjured testimony, afterwards fully exposed, a few miserable priests suffered death. A new test was imposed, which excluded all Papists from both houses of parliament. The treasurer Danby was impeached for advising the last peace with France, though it was proved that he had acted by his sovereign's orders; and a bill passed the House of Commons, excluding the Duke of York from the succession to the crown, which was rejected by the Lords (1679). A more important bill for the general liberty, the act of *Habeas Corpus*, was the work of the same session of parliament. (See Sect. XXV., § 14.)

5. The distinguishing epithets of Whig and Tory were now first known—the former, the opposers of the crown, against the latter, its partisans; and each party, as in all factions, carried its principles to an extreme. The Whigs, predominant in the next parliament, raged with fury against the Catholics, and insisted on the king's assent to the bill for the exclusion of his brother. He had no other expedient but to dissolve them, but found their successors equally violent. After various fruitless attempts to conciliate their favour to his measures, a dissolution ensued of this parliament held at Oxford, the last which Charles assembled (1681).

6. But the great cause of dissatisfaction remained. The Duke of York was at the bottom of all the measures of government. A conspiracy was formed, called the Rye-house plot, by Shaftesbury, Russel, Sidney, and the Duke of Monmouth, natural son of the king, on the pretence of vindicating the national liberties. It was discovered by one of the associates; and Russel and Sid-

ney suffered a capital punishment (1683). The detection of this conspiracy strengthened the authority of the sovereign. The Duke of York was restored to his office of high admiral, and tacitly acknowledged as the successor to the crown. Charles II. died 6th of February 1685, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th year of his reign. [His court was the most immoral that had ever been known in England: the example of the king was imitated by the young nobility: the palace became a school for vice, which was practised with ostentation, and spread its baleful influence around. Charles did not leave any legitimate children: his illegitimate children were the Dukes of Monmouth, Southampton, Grafton, Northumberland, St. Albans, and Richmond; the Countesses of Lichfield and Derwentwater. His average annual revenue, from all sources, has been estimated at £1,800,000.]

7. The Duke of York succeeded to the throne, by the title of James II. His reign was short and inglorious. He was the instrument of his own misfortunes, and ran headlong to destruction. The Catholics at this time were not the hundredth part of the nation, yet James was weak enough to make the desperate attempt of substituting the Popish faith in room of the Protestant. Discarding the nobility from his councils, he was directed solely by Romish priests; and in the very outset of his reign, expressed his contempt of the authority of parliament, and a firm purpose to exercise an unlimited despotism.

8. The Duke of Monmouth, having excited a new rebellion, was defeated, made prisoner, and beheaded; and the most inhuman rigour was shown in the punishment of all his partisans. [James then resolved to attempt three objects: first, the establishment of a standing army; secondly, the employment of Catholic officers; and thirdly, a modification of the *Habeas Corpus Act*. These measures were opposed by his council, and excited alarm in the public, which was increased by the expulsion of the Protestants from France by Louis XIV., about the same time.] The parliament was in general submissive to the king's will, which for a while met with no opposition or control. A declaration was published, establishing full liberty of conscience in matters of religion; and several bishops, who refused to publish it in their dioceses, were committed to prison. A Catholic president was appointed to one of the colleges of Oxford. An ambassador was sent to the pope, and a papal nuncio received in London. The Catholics openly boasted that theirs would soon be the religion of the state.

9. James had three children: Mary, the wife of the stadtholder, William, prince of Orange; Anne, married to Prince George of Denmark; and James, an infant, born in 1687. The stadtholder had looked on his right to the crown of England as certain before the birth of this infant, and, after that event, projected still to gain it by arms or intrigue; the infatuation of

the king, and the general discontent of the people, giving him the most flattering invitation. [The state of European politics at that time gave William an excuse for raising an army of 29,000 men, and in raising his fleet to sixty-seven vessels, under the pretext of defending himself against Louis XIV., who warned James of his danger, and proposed the junction of the French and English fleets as a measure of precaution; but James would give it no credit, till actually apprized of the sailing of William on the 19th October. He was driven back by a storm, and detained until the end of the month repairing the damage, when he again put to sea, and arrived at Torbay on the fifth of November, 1688, where he landed his troops].

10. The principal nobility and officers immediately joined the standard of the Prince of Orange; and James was at once abandoned by his people, his ministers, his favourites, and his own children. Leaving London in disguise, he was discovered and brought back by the populace; but the Prince of Orange wisely favouring his escape, he found means, a few days after, to convey himself to France (December 23).

11. [On the 26th December, the lords spiritual and temporal, to the number of about ninety, and an assembly of all who had sat in any of King Charles's parliaments, with the lord-mayor of London, and fifty of the Common Council, requested the Prince of Orange to take upon him the administration, and to issue writs for a convention-parliament, which met on the 22d January, 1689.] The throne being declared vacant, it was proposed, in the convention-parliament, that the crown should be settled on the Princess Mary and her issue, her husband governing as regent; whom failing, on the Princess Anne; and in default, on the heirs of the body of the Prince of Orange. The stadtholder declining the office of regent, it was finally resolved to confer the crown on the Prince and Princess of Orange, the former to have the sole administration of the government (February 13, 1689).

12. To this settlement was added a declaration of rights, fixing those of the subject and the royal prerogative. Of this, the most important articles are the following: "The king cannot suspend the laws, or their execution; he cannot levy money without consent of parliament: The subjects have right to petition the crown: A standing army cannot be kept up in time of peace but by consent of parliament: Elections and parliamentary debate must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled," &c. Such was the final settlement of the British government at the great era of the Revolution.

13. [The Great Revolution, as it has been called, borrowing nothing from the heroism or motives of those who brought it to pass, derives all its splendour from the great principle on which it rests, that *the public good is the great end of government*. It breathed a new life into the constitution, not so much by any alteration of its fundamental maxims, as by the spirit and feel-

ings which henceforth prevailed among the people. Absolute power, passive obedience, and hereditary rights, were destroyed. And the struggle between the crown, the aristocracy, and the people—between despotism and liberty—which had continued from the Conquest downwards, almost always to the advantage of the monarch, who in return for their aid had gradually added to the privileges of the people, ended in his entire dependence on parliament. From that time, the real sovereignty of the nation has been in the parliament, the monarch having no power to exercise any administrative authority, but through a minister of state who is responsible to parliament, and who cannot be continued in office without its consent. The policy of government must now therefore be constantly in accordance with the opinions of the majority of the House of Commons, who have the power to withhold the supplies.]

SECTION XXV.

ON THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

1. THE rudiments of the constitution of England may be traced as far back as the Norman conquest. William¹ distributed a great proportion of the lands among his Norman followers, subjecting these, as well as the Anglo-Saxons who retained their property, to the feudal tenures (see Note, page 316), and thus extinguishing at once the ancient liberties of the people.—England was divided into 60,215 military fiefs, all held of the crown, under the obligation of the vassal's taking arms (with a fixed number of cavalry) for his sovereign, whenever required (on pain of having his lands escheated). In the continental kingdoms of Europe, as in France, the feudal system arose by slow degrees; nor was there of consequence the same union of the fabric as in England. The feudal lords were independent of each other, ever at variance from their mutual pretensions, and often owing but a very slender allegiance to the crown. Their sub-vassals (those who held lands of them on the same conditions as they held of the crown) suffered from oppression, and often struggled for their freedom; but these efforts, being partial, produced no consequence favourable to its attainment. In England, all (the feudatories) were oppressed by the enormous weight of the crown; it was a common grievance, and produced at times violent efforts [to limit the prerogatives of the monarch. It was during these contests between the crown and the feudal barons, that concessions were obtained by the people from both parties, which favoured their escape from the villanage to which they had been reduced.]

2. *The forest-laws imposed by the Conqueror (see M. A., Sect.*

XVII., § 2, 11) were a grievance felt by the whole nation, as rendering every man's property precarious, and subject to the arbitrary encroachments of the crown. It was no wonder that the barons and their vassals should cordially unite to rid themselves of so intolerable a hardship. Henry I. found it necessary to conciliate his subjects, by mitigating the most rigorous of the feudal laws. A greater advance was made under Henry II., by the institution of the trial by jury. But John, imprudently resisting this natural progress towards a rational freedom, was soon compelled into those important concessions, the *Charta de Foresta* and *Magna Charta*. From that time, whatever we may judge of the actual government, which was often most arbitrary and despotical, the constitution of England was that of a limited monarchy.

3. The next memorable era in the growth of the English constitution was the reign of Henry III., when, under that weak prince, the parliament received a new form, by the admission of [two knights for each county, two citizens for each city, and two burgesses for every burgh, who were summoned by writ (1265). Until this time the king had not the power of omitting to call a tenant-in-chief or baron to the Great Council, nor of summoning any person who was not one; but after the battle of Evesham (August 4, 1265), when the barons were subdued, Henry III. selected for the next parliament only such of his peers as he thought proper, on the ground that those who had been in arms against him were not fit to be summoned to his councils. The same practice was followed by Edward I.; and thus arose the law that the king's writ of summons constituted a baron, and not the circumstance of holding lands of him in chief. Barons were not created by patent until 1387, in the tenth year of Richard II.] Edward I. acknowledged the authority of parliament in obtaining all his subsidies, and ratified a new law, which declared that no tax should be levied without the consent of Lords and Commons.—The *Magna Charta* was confirmed no less than eleven times in the course of this reign.

4. Thus the constitution continued advancing, till its progress was suspended by the civil wars of York and Lancaster. The rights of both prince and people seemed then to be entirely forgotten; and the race of Tudor found no resistance from parliament to their vigorous but despotic sway. The talents of Elizabeth, and the high character which her government sustained with foreign powers, extinguished all domestic disquiets, while the predominant feeling was the maintenance of the power and dignity of the crown.

5. But under the succeeding prince, when that power and dignity were abused by his own weakness, the nation began to awake from its lethargy: and that spirit of opposition, which in this reign confined itself to complaints, was in the next to break forth with alarming violence. Charles I., endowed with superior

energy of character, and acting, as he conceived, on a principle of duty, which called on him to maintain the prerogative of his predecessors, and transmit it unimpaired to his posterity, was imprudent in exerting with rigour an authority which he wanted ultimate resources to support. He was compelled to sign the *Petition of Rights*, a grant more favourable to liberty than *Magna Charta*. The true patriots were satisfied with this concession, which conferred the most ample constitutional freedom. But with the popular leaders, patriotism was the cloak of insatiable ambition; and, advancing in their demands with every new compliance, the last appeal was made to the sword; and the contest ended by the destruction of the monarchy.

6. The despotism which succeeded, and the fluctuation of power from the Long Parliament to the Protector, and finally to the leaders of a standing army, afforded convincing demonstration how vain was the chimera of a republic, under which the demagogues had masked their designs. Weary of anarchy, the nation returned with high satisfaction to the best of all constitutions, a limited monarchy.

7. New encroachments under Charles II. produced new limitations, and the act of *Habeas Corpus* (which gives to the subject the right to be brought before the Court of King's Bench or Common Pleas to have it determined whether the cause of his commitment be just) gave the utmost possible security to personal liberty. The violent and frantic invasion of the constitution by James II. banished himself and his posterity from the throne, and produced a new and solemn contract between the king and people. Regarding, therefore, the Revolution as the final settlement of the English constitution, we shall endeavour briefly to delineate the chief features of that great political structure.

8. The constitution of Great Britain may be viewed under two distinct heads, the legislative and the executive power; the last comprehending the prerogative of the crown.

The power of legislation belongs to parliament, whose constituent parts are, the King, Lords, and Commons. The House of Lords consists of the temporal peers of England, and the spiritual, viz. the two archbishops (of Canterbury and York), and twenty-four bishops. To these, since the union with Scotland and Ireland, are added sixteen delegates from the peerage of the former kingdom (elected by the whole body for every new parliament); and twenty-eight peers (elected for life), one archbishop, and three bishops (who sit in annual rotation), from the latter. [The House of Commons consists of 658 deputies or members,—500 from England, 53 from Scotland, and 105 from Ireland. The members for counties, or divisions of counties, are elected by the freeholders, copyholders, leaseholders, and occupying tenants of a certain yearly value; and the members for cities and burghs, by the occupiers of houses rated at £10 and upwards. The Lord Chancellor of England (in virtue of his office) is speaker (or

president) of the House of Lords, and represents that body in their collective capacity, when holding intercourse with other public bodies, or with individuals. The speaker (or president) of the House of Commons is chosen from amongst its own members, subject to the approval of the crown, and holds his office till the dissolution of the parliament in which he is elected. The speaker is the executive officer of the house. The power of parliament is transcendent, and subject to no limitation whatever. An act of parliament binds every subject, and even the sovereign, when specially named therein; and no authority less than that of parliament (the assent of the crown, lords, and commons) can dispense with, or abrogate a statute. The Lords and Commons, acting concurrently, can assume the supreme power, whenever the throne is vacant, or the sovereign incapable of exercising the royal functions, as happened at the Revolution, and during the reign of George III. Before the Conquest, parliaments were held by the Saxons twice every year. There is also no doubt that they were occasionally held under the first Norman princes. In the 4th year of the reign of Edward III. (1330), it was enacted that a parliament should be holden *once* a-year, and oftener if necessary; and again, in 1362, that it should be held every year. But, by the means of Cardinal Wolsey, a parliament was held but once in fourteen years during the reign of Henry VIII. They were afterwards held at the pleasure of the sovereign. In 1664 (16, Charles II.), it was enacted that parliament should not be discontinued above three years. There appears to be no authority for supposing that members were elected to serve in more than *one session* or parliament (1, Blackstone, by Chitty, 154), until, in 1694 (6, William III.), it was continued for three years; which, in 1715 (1, George I.), was extended to seven years, unless dissolved by the authority of the sovereign, or by his death, when it continues in being for six months after, unless sooner prorogued or dissolved by the successor. And if not in session at the sovereign's death, it has the right immediately to assemble; and if no parliament is in being, then the members of the last parliament assemble, and become a parliament.]

9. The king is the most essential component part of parliament, because he alone has the power to convoke, prorogue, and dissolve it. He has likewise a negative on all its acts, which are invalid without his approbation; and each house has a negative on the decrees of the other. It is likewise competent to the king to ~~propose~~ any measure to be laid before the parliament.

10. All questions regarding public affairs and national measures, may originate in either house of parliament, except grants of money, which must take their rise in the House of Commons, and cannot be altered in any respect, though they may be rejected by the Lords.* The matter must be primarily

* This right appears to have been the established law of parliament previous to Henry VI., as the Commons then complained that the Lords had pro-

discussed in that house in which it originates, and, until there decided, cannot be received by the other, unless a conference should be demanded. A bill refused by either house, or, though passed by both, refused by the king, is utterly void.

11. The executive power of government is lodged in the king. (1.) The first branch of his office is the administration of justice. The judges of all courts of judicature are the king's substitutes. He is the prosecutor of all crimes, and has the power of pardoning and suspending the execution of all sentences. (2.) He is the fountain of all honour, the giver of all titles and dignities, and the disposer of all the offices of state. (3.) He is the superintendent of commerce, and has the power of regulating weights and measures, and of coining money. (4.) He is the head of the church, and names the archbishops and bishops. (5.) He is commander-in-chief of all the sea and land forces, and can alone equip fleets, levy armies, and appoint all their officers. (6.) He has the power of making war, peace, and alliance, and of sending and receiving ambassadors. (7.) He is above the reach of all courts of justice, and is not responsible to any judicature for his conduct in the administration of government.

12. These high powers of the sovereign, which, at first sight, would seem to render him an absolute monarch, are thus admirably controlled:—The king being now dependent on parliament for all subsidies, without which he can neither maintain his fleets and armies, nor pay the salaries of officers. The parliament, indeed, settles a revenue on the king for life; but this is merely sufficient for the maintenance of his household, and supporting a proper dignity of establishment; and as it must be renewed by parliament at the beginning of every reign, it is in the power of that body to withhold it till all abuses shall be remedied. Thus the constitution may be brought back at those periods to its first principles, and all encroachments of the prerogative restrained.

13. The king can never reign without a parliament. It must by law be assembled once in three years, on a notice of forty days before its meeting; [but the annual assembling of parliament is now indispensable, as the supplies are only granted for one year, and other powers, as the Mutiny Act, which regulates the army and navy.] Although the head of the church, the king cannot alter the established religion, nor frame ecclesiastical regulations: these must be made by the assembly of the clergy. The king cannot interfere in the ordinary administration of jus-

posed the amount of grant to be made. They said it was the business of the Lords to consent to the Commons' grant, and not the Commons to the Lords! This jealousy probably arose, that the Lords might not have the power to exempt their own property from taxation, or to impose it unequally. And not without reason; for on the occasion complained of, the Lords proposed that a subsidy of one-tenth and a-half from cities and towns, and one-fifteenth and a-half from all other lay persons, should be granted to the king, which would have taxed the citizens and burghers at 9½ per cent., and the landholders at only 6½ per cent. of their moveable property. (See Hallam, Middle Ages, c. 8, part 2.)

tice, nor refuse his consent to the prosecution of crimes. He may pardon offences, but cannot exempt the offender from pecuniary compensation to the party injured. He cannot alter the standard of money, either in weight or alloy. He cannot raise an army without the consent of parliament; and though a moderate standing force is kept up with their consent, the funds for its payment require an annual renewal by parliament.

Finally, although the sovereign himself is not amenable to any judicature, his ministers are responsible for all the measures of government, and are impeachable by the Commons at the bar of the House of Lords, for every species of misconduct or misdemeanour.

Moreover, the freedom of parliamentary discussion is secured, as no member can be questioned for any opinions or words, but in that house of parliament in which they were uttered.

14. The personal security, and the rights of the subjects, are farther guarded by these three peculiarities of the British constitution, the *Habeas Corpus*, Trial by Juries, and the Liberty of the Press. By the act of *Habeas Corpus*, every prisoner must be brought before a judge, the cause of his detainer certified, and the judge's authority interposed to it. The violation of this statute is punishable by the highest penalties. The *Habeas Corpus* may be suspended in times of danger to the state, as during the existence of a conspiracy or rebellion. Although this act does not extend to Scotland, the subjects of that part of the United Kingdom are equally secured by their own laws, particularly by the statute 1701, c. 6.

15. All crimes must be tried by a jury of twelve men in England and Ireland, and fifteen in Scotland: in the former, unanimity of opinion is necessary; in the latter, a majority only is required. The prisoner has a right of challenging or objecting to the jurors: and (except in Scotland), without showing any cause, he may challenge twenty successively in ordinary cases, and thirty-five in cases of treason. The jury are judges both of the law and the fact: nor has the opinion of the court any weight in their decision, but such as they chose to give it.

16. The liberty of the press is in this respect a guardian of the constitution, that it is competent for any individual to convey to the public his opinion of the whole conduct of government, and the merits of its conductors: to canvass every counsel of state, and examine every public measure: thus forcibly restraining all ministers and magistrates within the limits of their duty. It is farther the guardian of injured innocence, and the redresser of all wrongs that evade the cognizance of law. Yet this most valuable right, if itself unrestrained, would be the source of the greatest mischief. If it were allowable with impunity to assail the established government, to convulse society, to disseminate calumnies, to injure the reputation or endanger the life and property of individuals by false accusations, there would be an end

liberty and civil happiness. The liberty of the press consists in this, that there is no examination of writings previous to being printed and published; but, after publication, such writings as offend in any of the above particulars, are, on trial of conscience by jury, punishable by law. Thus the public is constituted the judge and censor of all writings addressed to itself.

Such are briefly the outlines of the admirable fabric of the British Constitution. *Esto perpetua!*

SECTION XXVI.

OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

THE property belonging to the crown of Great Britain, which was anciently very great, and fully adequate to the maintenance of government, consisted of domain lands, the first-fruits and tenths of church-benefices, the rents of vacant bishoprics and manors, the profits of military tenures, fines imposed in courts of law, forfeitures, &c.* These are now, from alienations made by the sovereigns, and retrenchments of their prerogative, become so inconsiderable, that the king may be considered as wholly dependent on (the taxes levied from) the people for the support of his dignity, and the means of carrying on the business of the state.† The public revenue, destined both for the former and latter purpose, arises now from the subsidies granted by the crown. The supplies are voted by the Commons; and the means of furnishing them, by taxes proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, must receive their sanction.

Of these taxes, some are voted annually, as the sugar and malt-tax; others are perpetual, unless modified or repealed, as the land-tax,‡ customs, excise, post-office duty,

until the accession of Charles I., these sources of revenue were equal to the expenses of government: but the extensive sales and grants of the crown by Elizabeth and James, together with the rapidly decreasing value of money, the revenue was collected on the old valuation, subjected Charles to great distress, whilst parliament refused to provide a remedy, unless he made concessions of the prerogative, which he considered derogatory to his sovereignty.

The Restoration re-established the ancient feudal monarchy; but one of the first acts of parliament was the abolishing the feudal payments on the succession to the crown, which diverted nearly one-half of the ancient revenue of the crown into the pockets of the landholders; and whilst they so acted, they confirmed to the lords of the manors the payments arising from copyholds, which are still payable—in some manors, the lord copyholder having to pay one or two years' rent, at what the property was let for, before he acquires a title to the property.

The land-tax was granted after the revolution, as a commutation for the abolition of the manorial profits formerly payable to the crown; and was fixed at 4s. in the pound, on the full true yearly rent at the time of making the assessment; but as no valuation has been made since 1695, the assessment is now very unequal. In some places it is still nearly 4s. in the pound, whilst in others it is less than one penny in the pound. If this commutation of 4s. in the pound had been as strictly levied for the benefit of the revenue, as the manorial profits payable to the lords of manors, it would have formed a principal item in the national income.

stamps, window-tax, duties on servants, hackney-coaches, pensions, &c. The customs are a tax paid by the merchant on all imported and exported commodities; the excise, an inland imposition, laid sometimes on the consumer, and sometimes on the retail-seller.*

3. [After the revolution, the sovereignty was virtually in parliament, which was composed of the peers or great landholders, and the commons, or the deputies of the lesser landholders, who nominated the majority. As indirect taxation (customs and excise) was then loudly complained of as an innovation, and had been employed to direct public feeling against James II., the government was unable to raise an adequate revenue to carry on the war against Louis XIV., which William considered necessary to secure the peace of Europe; and as parliament objected to grant any further taxation on property, the system of borrowing money to carry on the war was resorted to, which formed the commencement of the National Debt; and additional taxes on articles of consumption were imposed, to pay the interest on these loans. At the death of William III. the funded and unfunded debt amounted to £16,394,702. In place of raising an adequate revenue to defray the expenses incurred within the year, or to repay any extraordinary expenditure within a limited number of years, by an equitable assessment on all existing property, the same system of raising money to carry on foreign wars was persevered in, which has subjected the nation to an extent of injustice that can scarcely be estimated, the industry of the country being burdened with the payment of the accumulated interest, whilst property is less burdened than in any other European kingdom. In 1760, at the accession of George III., the National Debt had increased to £88,341,268; at his death, in 1820, to £848,394,804; and at present to about £840,490,000; the interest payable, and the expense of management, being nearly £27,000,000.]

4. The produce of the taxes, originally separate funds, is now thrown into two or three capital funds, one of which is mortgaged by parliament for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list, viz. the salaries of officers of state, judges, ambassadors, private expenses, pensions, &c.

5. Notwithstanding the little prospect of an extinction of the national debt, government maintains its credit, and will always find lenders, because the terms granted are beneficial, and the security is transferable: so that a lender can thus always obtain payment of his principal sum, and frequently make gain by the transference. The value of stock rises and falls from various

* Until the Revolution, except during the Commonwealth, the customs duties were levied, with few exceptions, at a moderate rate of 3 per cent.; but to make up for the loss of the national revenue, which they were greatly increased. The excise duties were first imposed during the civil wars. These also were continued and increased, although it had been solemnly declared, when they were imposed, that they would be abolished at the end of the war.

occasional causes—as, national prosperity, or the reverse, plenty or scarcity of money, quantity of public debt. On this variation is founded the practice of stock-jobbing; that is, either buying and selling actual property in the public funds, which is a lawful speculation, or gaming and wagering on the price of stock, which is an illicit though common practice. The practice of stock-jobbing, even by the transference of actual property, far more by gaming on that which is fictitious, is prejudicial to commerce and manufactures, by engrossing a great part of the national wealth, repressing industry, encouraging fraud, and often tempting to the most treacherous and dangerous devices for raising and sinking the funds.

SECTION XXVII.

HISTORY OF FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIII.

1. FRANCE, which under Henry IV. had risen from a state of miserable anarchy to high prosperity and splendour, sunk, upon his death, into weakness, faction, and disorder. Mary of Medicis, regent in the minority of her son Louis XIII., a weak woman, and of restless ambition, disgusted the nobility by her partiality for her Italian courtiers. Concini (a Florentine), her first minister, created Marshal d'Ancre, became so universally odious that he was openly murdered in the Louvre, and his body torn to pieces (1617). The queen was removed from Paris, and kept for two years a prisoner at Blois, till relieved by the Duke d'Epemon, to serve his own purposes of ambition. The queen's party (the Protestant) was at war with that of her son, and the whole kingdom in a state of anarchy. [The Protestants, headed by Rohan and Soubise, gained such important advantages, that the king was glad to agree to a pacification, and to confirm the edict of Nantes, which guaranteed religious toleration (1622).]

2. The genius of Cardinal Richelieu, who was now brought into power (1624) by Mary of Medicis, soon effected a wonderful change. He reconciled the mother and her son, soothed the contending factions; and, on the king's assuming the government, directed every public measure, to the complete re-establishment of the power and dignity of the monarchy. The party of the Calvinists, alienated by persecution, attempted to throw off their allegiance, and establish an independent state, of which Rochelle should be the capital. Richelieu bargained with the Dutch to furnish a fleet for subduing their Protestant brethren; and the Dutch now fought as keenly for the Catholic religion as they had lately done for the Protestant. The English sent a fleet to the aid of the Rochellois, who for a year maintained a most obstinate siege against the French troops commanded by the cardinal in person. They were at length forced to surrender; and Rochelle,

and all the other Protestant cities of France, were stripped of their privileges, and had their fortifications destroyed. Thus Calvinism was effectually crushed in France (1629).

3. Louis XIII., though a weak prince, saw his advantage in entering into all the great designs of his minister. Richelieu influenced the politics of all Europe. The power of Austria was attacked in Germany, Flanders, Spain, and Italy; and the talents of the minister were equally displayed in active war, in foreign negotiation, and in his domestic arrangements. Yet at this very time a formidable cabal was undermining him. Mary of Medicis was jealous of the man she had raised; and the Duke of Orleans, the king's brother, sought to supplant him in his power. Richelieu, with astonishing intrepidity of mind, repressed this conspiracy. Fortified by the king's authority, he seized the Marshall de Marillac, one of his most dangerous enemies, at the head of his army, and tried and put him to death by a lawless stretch of power. Orleans, apprehensive of a similar fate, fled the kingdom; and Mary of Medicis, arrested and removed from court, ended her career of ambition in voluntary exile at Brussels. Orleans, supported by the Duke de Montmorenci, attempted a rebellion; but their army was defeated, and Montmorenci executed for treason. The queen had taken part with the enemies of the cardinal. He imprisoned her confessor, seized and examined her papers; and the queen, Anne of Austria, was very near sharing the fate of Mary of Medicis.

4. Amidst all this turbulence both of foreign war and state cabal, Richelieu cultivated the pursuits of literature, encouraged the sciences, instituted the French Academy (1635), and composed pieces for the theatre. The administration of Richelieu, though turbulent from faction and civil war, was, on the whole, extremely glorious for France; and the seeds were sown of the splendour of that monarchy in the succeeding age of Louis XIV. The death of this great minister (1642) was soon after followed by that of his sovereign, Louis XIII. (1643.)

SECTION XXVIII.

SPAIN UNDER PHILIP III. AND PHILIP IV.—CONSTITUTION OF PORTUGAL AND OF SPAIN.

1. FROM the death of Philip II. (1598), Spain declined in power, and, notwithstanding her great sources of wealth, the national finances were in the utmost disorder. Philip III. was forced to conclude a peace with the Dutch (and acknowledge their independence, 1609), and to restore to the house of Nassau its conquered estates. With a weak and despicable policy, he expel-

ed from his kingdom all the Moors (about 600,000 crossing over into Africa), who were the most industrious of its inhabitants (1610); and this depopulation, joined to that already produced by her American colonies, rendered Spain a lifeless and enervated mass.

2. The national weakness and its disorders increased under Philip IV., who, equally spiritless as his father, was implicitly ruled by his minister Olivarez, as the former had been by the Duke of Lerma. His reign was one continued series of miscarriages and defeats. The Dutch seized Brazil; the French invaded Artois; Catalonia revolted to France; and Portugal shook off its yoke, and became an independent kingdom (1640).

3. No revolution was ever effected with such ease and celerity as that of Portugal. The people were disgusted with the rigorous and impolitic administration of Olivarez. The Duke of Braganza, descended from the ancient kings of Portugal, had at this time the command of the army. Instigated by the ambition of his duchess, and seeing the spirit of the nation favourable to his views, he caused himself to be proclaimed king at Lisbon (as John IV.) The Spanish guards were attacked and routed, and the chief partisans of the government put to death by the populace. All the principal towns followed the example of the capital, and soon after all, the foreign settlements. From that era (1640), Portugal became an independent sovereignty, after having been for sixty years an appanage of the kingdom of Spain.

4. The government of Portugal approached to an absolute monarchy. The consent of the states, or *Cortes*, consisting of clergy, nobility, and commons, was formerly necessary to the imposition of taxes, and the settlement of the succession to the crown. But this assembly, never convoked but by the royal mandate, was rarely summoned. The ordinary business of government was transacted by the king and his counsel of state, which was appointed by himself. The crown's revenue arose from its domains, including the family estates of Braganza, from the duties on exports and imports, from the taxes, and from a stated proportion of the gold brought from Brazil. The state of the commerce and manufactures of Portugal was extremely low; and, though favoured by soil and climate, the agriculture of the kingdom was much neglected.

5. The reigns of Philip III. and IV. of Spain (1598—1665), though an era of national humiliation, derived some small lustre from the state of literature. Dramatic composition, poetry, and romance, and even history, were cultivated with great success. But these are in some sort the amusements of indolence; and this was the predominant character of the people. This character may have arisen from two sources: the torrent of wealth poured in from America retarded, in the lower classes, domestic industry and manufactures, while it increased the pride of the gentry, and made them disdain all occupation; and the despotism of the

government was strongly repressive of all enterprise and activity in the people.

6. The constitution of Spain, of which the sovereignty was in ancient times elective, was then that of an absolute monarchy. The crown is hereditary; though at different times, as in 1619 and 1713, there has been a new limitation made by the monarch of the succession. The *Cortes*, or states of the kingdom, limited in former times the power of the sovereign; but Charles V. reduced their authority to nothing, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their seat in those assemblies; the remaining members, the deputies of the towns, being entirely under the control of the monarch. The king's council, or *Conseja Real*, was the organ of government; but there was no department of the state which had any constitutional power to regulate the will of the prince.

SECTION XXIX.

AFFAIRS OF GERMANY, FROM THE ABDICATION OF CHARLES V. TO THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

1. To preserve the connection of the affairs of Germany with those of the other kingdoms of Europe, we must look back to the period of the abdication of Charles V. (1558), when the empire was distracted both by the political factions and quarrels of its independent princes, and the contending sects of the Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists. His brother, Ferdinand I., attempted to reconcile these factions, and unite the three religions; but in vain. Maximilian II. had still less power to effect this object than his predecessor; nor was the face of affairs at all changed during the succeeding reigns of Rodolph II. and his brother Matthias. A civil war (between the Catholic and Protestant leagues) of thirty years' duration reduced the empire to extremity (1618-48). On the death of Matthias, the Protestant states of Bohemia, who had suffered under the government, annulled the election of his cousin, Ferdinand II., a zealous Catholic, and conferred their crown on the Elector Palatine (son-in-law of James I. of England), 1619; and the emperor, in revenge, deprived him both of his crown and his electorate (1621). [He treated the Bohemians as a conquered people, deprived the Protestants of their religious liberties, and even of their rights as citizens. He even went so far as to deny them the liberty of making testaments, or contracting legal marriages. All their ministers, without exception, were banished the kingdom; and by an edict in 1627, all Protestants who persisted in their opinions were ordered to quit the kingdom within six months. 30,000 of the best families in the kingdom, of whom 185 were nobility, removed to the neighbouring states of Saxony, Prussia, &c.]

2. The Protestant cause was declining fast in Germany, and everything seemed to indicate success to the schemes of Ferdinand for its entire annihilation, when it received new vigour from the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden (1630). This great prince defeated the imperial generals, and carried the Protestant banners triumphantly through Germany. The emperor was completely humbled, and the Elector Palatine, at the eve of restoration to his dominions, when the heroic Gustavus was slain in the battle of Lutzen (1632). The war was successfully prosecuted by the Swedish generals; while Cardinal Richelieu harassed the two branches of the house of Austria in Germany and Spain, which were attacked at once by France, Sweden, Holland, and Savoy.

3. In the succeeding reign of Ferdinand II., the Protestants of Germany found the most active support both from the Swedes and the French; and the emperor being forced to conclude the peace of Westphalia (1648), these powers dictated its terms. [By this celebrated treaty, all the princes of the empire had confirmed to them the free exercise of their territorial rights, in matters ecclesiastical and political, in their dominions, in their rights of regality, and in the possession of all these together, without molestation on any pretence whatever.] The Swedes were indemnified for the charges of the war, and acquired Pomerania, Stettin, Wismar, &c., and their sovereign the dignity of prince of the empire; the Palatine family was restored to its chief possessions; the king of France made landgrave of Alsace; and an equal establishment decreed of the three religions. This salutary peace laid the foundation of the system of "the balance of power," and of the future greatness and prosperity of the German empire.

SECTION XXX.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV.

ON the death of Louis XIII. (1663), his son, Louis XIV., succeeded to the throne, in the fifth year of his age. Europe, we have seen, was in a most turbulent state; and France, under the administration of Richelieu, acted a conspicuous part exciting those general commotions. The queen-mother, Anne of Austria, appointed regent by the states, chose for her minister the Cardinal Mazarin, an Italian, and from that circumstance arose the people. The Spaniards, taking advantage of the king's minority, and the popular discontents, made an attack on Champagne; but they were defeated in a series of engagements by the great Condé; and the Marshal de Turenne shared with him the palm of glory. The peace of Westphalia composed these differences.

2. At this very time the commotions of the *Fronde** broke out in Paris. The jealousy felt by the nobility of Mazarin's power, the unpopularity of his measures, the disorder of the finances, and the oppression of new taxes, inflamed the nation; and the intrigues of the coadjutor, afterwards Cardinal de Retz, blew up this flame into a civil war. The parliament of Paris took part with the rebels, who were headed by the Prince of Conti, the Dukes of Longueville and Bouillon, and the chief nobility. The queen and the royal family removed to St. Germain's, and the ministerial party besieged Paris. Turenne, who at first supported them, was gained over by the rebels. The women, who have always their part in the disturbances of France, had a conspicuous share in those of the *Fronde*. A short pacification ensued; but the imprudent violence of Mazarin soon renewed the disorders. At length the parliament of Paris assumed the right of banishing this unpopular minister, who retired to the imperial dominions, though his influence continued still to regulate the measures of state.

3. A change ensued, on the king's coming of age (1652). De Retz and Orleans, the chief promoters of the rebellion, were banished, and Mazarin resumed his station as minister.—Condé had joined the Spaniards in an attack on the French Netherlands, but was overmatched by Turenne, who revenged this insult by the taking of Dunkirk, and several fortified towns under the Spanish government. Dunkirk was, by convention with Cromwell, ceded to the English, and afterwards sold back to France, as we have seen, by Charles II.

4. The war with Spain was ended in 1659, by the peace of the Pyrenees. Many cessions were made on both sides, but France kept Roussillon and part of Artois. It was stipulated that Louis XIV. should marry the infanta, daughter of Philip IV., but should renounce all right that might thence open to the crown of Spain.

5. The treaty of the Pyrenees gave peace to the south of Europe; and the wars in the north between Sweden, Poland, and Denmark, which arose after the abdication of Christina of Sweden, were terminated in the year following by the treaty of Oliva. Christina, a singular but not a great character, held the sceptre of Sweden for twenty-two years after the death of her father, Gustavus Adolphus; till at length, tired of the cares of government, and affecting a passion for literature and philosophy, she resigned the crown, in 1654, to her cousin, Charles X.; an example which was followed soon after by Casimir, king of Poland, though after an honourable reign, and for a better reason—age and sickness.

6. Mazarin died in 1661, and Louis XIV. entered on a vigorous and splendid career. The finances, which from the time of Henry IV. had been in extreme disorder, were admirably regu-

* So called, from the insurgents throwing stones at their adversaries by means of slings, which in French are called *frondes*.

ted by Colbert (1661-83); and the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom, wisely encouraged by government, were soon in the most flourishing situation. The canal of Languedoc joined the Bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean (1680); the principal sea-ports were enlarged and fortified; and the internal police of the kingdom was regularly and strictly enforced. The arms of France aided at the same time England against the Dutch, Germany against the Turks, and Portugal against Spain.

7. On the death of Philip IV., Louis, on pretence that Spain had failed in payment of the dowry of his queen, besieged and took Lille, with several other fortified towns of Flanders; and, in the next campaign, made himself master of Franche-Comté (1667-8). The sovereign marched with his armies; but the glory of these conquests was owing to Turenne and Vauban. The triple alliance formed by England, Holland, and Sweden, checked this career, and brought about the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668), by which Louis, though he retained Flanders, restored Franche-Comté, and confirmed the peace of the Pyrenees.

8. The strength and prosperity of the kingdom continued to increase under the able administration of Colbert (minister of finance), and Louvois (minister of war). The civil factions of Holland, between the Stadtholder and the party of the De Witts, tempted Louis to undertake the conquest of that country; and England, Germany, and Sweden, favoured his views. He overran the provinces of Utrecht, Overijssel, and Guelderland, and advanced almost to the gates of Amsterdam; when the Dutch inundated the country by letting in the sea, and the French were forced to retreat (1672-8).

9. The confederate powers now became jealous of the ascendancy of France; and the Prince of Orange had sufficient influence with England, and both branches of the house of Austria, to obtain their alliance in aid of the republic. The arms of Louis, however, still continued to be successful; and the peace concluded at Nimeguen, in 1678, was much to the honour of France. Franche-Comté was assured as a part of her dominions, and Spain allowed her right by conquest to a great proportion of the Netherlands.

10. Notwithstanding the peace, Louis, with the most culpable insincerity, seized Strasburg and Casale (the keys of Upper Germany and Lombardy), on the same day, and secretly took part with the Hungarians and Turks in their attack on the imperial dominions (1681). Vienna must have fallen into the hands of the Turks, had it not been seasonably relieved by the victorious arms of John Sobieski, king of Poland (1683).

11. One of the weakest and most impolitic measures of Louis XIV. was the revocation of the edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV. for the toleration of the Protestants. While their worship was suppressed, their churches demolished, and their

ministers banished, the Protestant laity were forbidden, under the most rigorous penalties, to quit the kingdom (1685). France, however, by this measure lost above 500,000 of her most industrious and useful subjects, [who emigrated to Protestant countries, and carried thither the arts of France, particularly the manufacture of silk], and the name of Louis XIV. was execrated over a great part of Europe.—It was not long after this time, that a similar excess of intolerant bigotry precipitated James II. from the throne of Britain, and forced him to seek an asylum from the monarch of France (1688).

12. William, prince of Orange, the inveterate enemy of Louis, brought about the league of Augsburg (1686); and the war was renewed with France by Germany, Sweden, Spain, England, and Holland. The French arms were still successful. The Duke of Luxemburg defeated William in the battles of Steenkirk (1693) and Neerwinden (1693); Noailles was victorious in Spain; and an army of 100,000 French ravaged the Palatinata, and took many of the most important towns on the Rhine. This was the crisis of the glory of Louis, whose fortunes were to sustain the most mortifying reverse.

13. Those various and most extensive military enterprises, however flattering to the pride of the monarch, had been attended with enormous expense, and no solid advantage to the nation. The finances had fallen into disorder after the death of Colbert (1683); a peace was absolutely necessary; and by the treaty of Ryswick, concluded in 1697, Louis restored to Spain all the conquests made in the two last wars, the dutchy of Lorraine to its duke, and acknowledged the right of William III. to the crown of England, (and retained of the German "reunions" only Alsace, with Strasburg and Landau.)

14. The succession to the kingdom of Spain, on the expected death of Charles II. without issue, was now the object of political intrigue. The emperor and the king of France had the only natural right of succession; but William III. of England, from the dread of such an increase of power to either, proposed a treaty of partition of the Spanish dominions, at home and abroad, between the Elector of Bavaria, the Dauphin, and the emperor's second son. Charles II. chose rather to make his own destination, and appointed by will that the Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin, and grandson of Louis, should inherit Spain; on whose death without issue, it should devolve on the archduke Charles, youngest son of the emperor.

15. On the death of Charles, the Duke of Anjou succeeded to the throne of Spain (as Philip V.), in virtue of this settlement. The emperor, the king of England, and the Dutch, proposed to separate from his crown the Spanish dominions in Italy. In this enterprise, Prince Eugene, son of the Count de Soissons, commanded the imperial troops—an illustrious renegade from France, of great prowess and military skill.

James II. of England died in 1701 at St. Germain's, and gave mortal offence to that government by acknowledging his son. On the death of king William in the year 1702, war was declared by England, Holland, and the empire, France and Spain. Louis XIV. was now in the decline

He had lost the ablest of his ministers and his greatest resources. The finances of the kingdom were exhausted. The army of his enemies were commanded by Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough, the ablest generals of the age, and supported by the resources of the united powers. Savoy and Portugal joined a formidable confederacy to overwhelm both branches of the house of Bourbon, and place the emperor's son on the throne of

Marlborough took Venlo, Ruremonde, and Liege, and, in 1703, with Eugene, defeated Tallard and Marsin, with the aid of Bavaria, in the signal battle of Blenheim (1704). Holland and Holland attacked Spain by sea and land. Catalonia and Valencia were subdued in six weeks; and Gibraltar, taken by the English, under Rooke, has ever since remained with them.

In the battle of Ramillies, Marlborough defeated Villeroy, with 20,000 dead on the field (1706). The contest, at first fought in Italy, ended alike disastrously for the house of Bourbon. The archduke Charles was in the meantime proclaimed emperor at Madrid; and Philip V. had serious thoughts of abandoning his dominion in America. But the death of the Duke of Berwick, natural son of James II., and the desponding spirit, and even prompted his father Louis to avenge himself on England, by aiding the desperate enterprise of establishing the pretender James on the throne of Britain, on the death of Anne in 1714.

But France and Spain were daily losing ground. The archduke acknowledged the title of the archduke Charles; the French seized the Mediterranean islands; and Louis, fallen from his proud pretensions, humbly entreated a peace, which was granted, unless on the condition of dethroning his grandson with his arms. He maintained for a while this unequal contest, but at length forced to propose terms equally humiliating: the recognition of all his conquests in the Netherlands and on the Rhine, the acknowledgment of the archduke's title to the crown of Spain, the promise to give no aid to his grandson; but these were, and the inhuman condition still insisted on, that he himself assist in dethroning his grandson. A last exertion made in Spain, under the Duke of Vendôme, at the head of a glorious army; and the victory obtained by the French at Alamoza restored Philip V. to the throne of Spain (1710). His competitor, the archduke Charles, soon after became emperor, on the death of his elder brother.

The intrigues of the cabinet of Queen Anne, and the coming to power of a Tory ministry, changed the politics of Europe. It

was resolved to make peace with France and Spain; and the treaty was concluded at Utrecht (1713). It was stipulated that Philip, king of Spain, should renounce all eventual right to the crown of France, as his brother should to the crown of Spain; the Dutch obtained an extension of frontier; the emperor a great part of Spanish Flanders: the English gained from Spain, Gibraltar and Minorca; and from France, Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay; with one term most humbling to the latter—the demolition of the harbour of Dunkirk. In the following year, a peace was concluded at Rastadt between France and the empire.

20. The conclusion of this peace, after an honourable war, was the most memorable event in the reign of Queen Anne, if we except the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland (1706), which was brought about by the negociation of commissioners mutually chosen, to secure the rights of either kingdom in the best manner for their mutual benefit. It was stipulated that they should be represented by one parliament (Sect. XXII., § 8), but that each kingdom should retain its own laws and its established religion, and that they should have the same privileges with respect to commerce. The succession to the crown was limited to the house of Hanover. Queen Anne died 30th of July, 1714; and Louis XIV. on the 1st September, 1715, in the 78th year of his age—a prince of great vigour of mind, of good talents, though unimproved by education, of dignified yet amiable manners, and whose greatest fault was his inordinate ambition, to which he sacrificed the real interests of his people. It was his highest honour, that he discerned and recompensed every species of merit; and France was in his time equally illustrious by the great military talents of her generals, and by the splendour of literature and the arts and sciences, which has made this period be considered the golden age of France.

SECTION XXXI.

OF THE CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE UNDER THE MONARCHY.

1. IT is necessary, for understanding the history of France, that we should have some acquaintance with its former monarchical constitution; and we shall very briefly trace the progress of its government under the different races of its sovereigns. The regal prerogative was, under the Merovingian princes, extremely limited (—752. See M. A., Sect. II., III.) The general assembly of the nation had the right of electing the sovereign, and the power of legislation. Under the Carlovingian race, the authority acquired by Pepin and Charlemagne sunk to nothing in the hands of their weak posterity; and though the crown had ceased to be elective, the regal dignity was a mere shadow. The power

f the state had passed into the hands of a turbulent aristocracy, ever at variance among themselves, and uniting only to abase the crown, and oppress the people (752—952).

2. Under the third (Capetian) race, the crown acquired more weight, and many of the sovereigns exerted a proper spirit in restraining the power, and punishing the lawless outrages of the nobles. It was to balance the weight of the aristocracy that Philip the Fair introduced the third estate to the national assemblies (1302), which for above four centuries had consisted only of the nobles and clergy. The chief power of the state began now to shift to the scale of the monarch. The national assembly interfered rather to ratify than decree; and in the fifteenth century the right of legislation was understood to reside wholly in the crown. The right of taxation seemed to follow, of course; and the assemblies, or states-general, were now rarely convened, and from the reign of Louis XIII. entirely laid aside.

3. But another power gradually arose in the state, which in some measure supplied their function in limiting the royal prerogative. The parliaments were originally nothing more than the chief courts of justice in the territory where they were established. The parliament of Paris had naturally a higher respect and dignity than those of the provinces, and, acquiring a right of appeal from their decrees, was considered as the paramount jurisdiction, and the depository of the laws of the kingdom. The sovereigns of France, on first assuming the powers of legislation and taxation, produced their edicts to be registered in that court, and frequently consulted with its members on momentous affairs of state, as in questions of peace, war, or alliance. Thus the nation began to regard the parliament of Paris as a body which shared the powers of government with the monarch: and, in the latter reigns, the parliament availed itself of that general opinion, and made a bold stand in opposing any arbitrary stretches of the king's authority, by refusing to verify and register his edicts.

4. But as this power of the parliament was in reality an usurpation, it was constantly a subject of dispute. The members of this court were in no sense the representatives of the people, or vested with any portion of the constitutional authority of the national assemblies. They were in the king's nomination, removable by him at pleasure, and even subject to entire annihilation as a body at his command. Nay, without so violent a remedy, the sovereign could at any time frustrate their opposition to his will, by appearing personally in the hall of parliament, and commanding his edict to be registered.

5. Yet even a power thus easily defeasible had its advantages to the state, and operated as a very considerable restraint on the royal authority. Considering itself as the guardian of the public liberty, it remonstrated against all arbitrary encroachments of the crown; and, by giving alarm to the nation, furnished an opposition sufficiently powerful to obtain its ends. The provincial

parliaments, although they likewise registered the royal edicts, never assumed any similar authority. They were no more than the chief courts of civil judicature.

6. The king of France was therefore to be considered as an absolute monarch, but whose authority was in some degree limited by the consuetudinary regulations of the state, and could not easily become entirely despotic and tyrannical. The crown was hereditary, but could not descend to a female, nor to a natural son. The royal revenue was partly fixed, and partly arbitrary. The former comprehended the royal domains, the duties on wines and salt, the land-tax, capitation-tax, and gift of the clergy; the latter from all other taxes which the monarch thought fit to impose, and from the sale of offices. Most of these duties were leased out to the farmers-general.

7. The Gallican church, though Catholic, and acknowledging the spiritual authority of the pope, had greatly abridged his ancient prerogatives within the kingdom. The assembly of the church, in 1682, declared, that no temporal sovereign could be deposed by the pope, or subjects absolved from their allegiance: it decreed the subjection of the pope to the councils of the church, and denied his infallibility when in opposition to the canons of those councils. The pope had no power to levy money in France without the royal license. In short, the ecclesiastical authority was in all respects subordinate to the civil.

SECTION XXXII.

SWEDEN AND RUSSIA—CHARLES XII. AND PETER THE GREAT.

1. Two most illustrious characters adorned the north of Europe in the latter part of the age of Louis XIV.—Charles XII. of Sweden, and Peter the Great of Muscovy. [To understand the relative position of these kingdoms at this period, it will be necessary to take a review of their previous history.

The progress of society, and the course of political events in the north-eastern countries of Europe (Denmark, Sweden, and Norway), resembled in several points those of our own country. The feudal system was introduced there in the twelfth century, and followed, as in England, by contentions between the sovereigns and the barons, and by concessions from the former in the style of *Magna Charta*. In the thirteenth century, the population in the towns obtained charters of incorporation and exemption from the control of the barons, in whom was vested almost the whole property of the land. National councils or parliaments were held yearly, to which deputies from the towns were sent; and laws were enacted for general observance; and that no war, taxation, or laws, could be made without consent of parliament.

The nobles and clergy were generally exempt from taxes. The most important event in Scandinavian history, during the middle ages, was the conjunct submission of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, to the sovereignty of Margaret (called the Semiramis of the North), by the compact or union of Calmar in 1397. This princess was the daughter of Waldemar IV., the last king of Denmark of the ancient reigning family, and widow of Haco VIII., king of Norway. She was first elected queen of Denmark, and then of Norway, after the death of her son Olaf by Haco, who died without issue in 1387. The Swedes, dissatisfied with their king, Albert of Mecklenburg, likewise bestowed their crown on her, who made him her prisoner. Being desirous of uniting the three kingdoms into one, she assembled their respective estates at Calmar, who agreed to a perpetual and irrevocable union, and settled the crown on Margaret's grand-nephew, Eric of Pomerania, each kingdom being allowed to retain its own constitution, its senate, and national legislation, and to be governed conformably to its own laws. Eric's predilection for the Danes, to whom a preference was given in the distribution of places of trust, naturally fostered animosity and hatred, which led to the deposition of Eric, after a turbulent reign (1412-39); when his nephew, Christopher of Bavaria, was elected king of the union. This latter prince having died without issue, the Swedes took the opportunity to break the union, and choose a king of their own, Charles Knutson Bonde, known as Charles VIII. The Danes followed the example, and elected Christiern I. of Oldenburg, descended by the female side from the race of their ancient kings, who, on the death of Christopher in 1448, renewed the union with Norway. He also governed Sweden from 1437, when Charles VIII. was expelled by his subjects, till 1464, when he was recalled. Violent insurrections frequently occurred, arising out of national antipathy, or stirred up by the discontented, until at last the tyranny of Christiern II. (the Wicked) drove the Swedes into revolt, under the leadership of Gustavus Vasa (descended from the ancient kings), whom they elected king (1523), which finally dissolved the union of Calmar.]

2. [Gustavus Vasa was not merely the liberator, but the restorer of his country. Within two years he subverted the power of the Romish bishops, who had been its constant disturbers, and introduced Lutheranism, rather by his policy than by authority. Everything under him assumed a new aspect—the government, the religion, the finances, the commerce, the agriculture, the sciences, and the morals of the Swedes. Instead of the assemblies of the nobles, which were destructive of the national liberty, he substituted Diets composed of the four orders in the state—the nobles, the clergy, the town deputies, and the peasants (1527). By this means he acquired a new influence, of which he took advantage to humble the power of the church and the nobles, which had long been a source of oppression to Sweden. In 1531,

Lutheranism was finally established, and the church lands annexed to the crown, which greatly contributed to exalt the royal authority. Gustavus made commercial treaties with England and Holland, and invited foreign artisans and manufacturers to settle in Sweden. His reign was long and prosperous; and he secured the hereditary succession of the crown to his male descendants, by an act known by the name of the Hereditary Union (1540). He died at the age of seventy (1560).

3. The union act was renewed at the Diet of Nordkoping, when Sigismond, Vasa's grandson, was deposed, and the crown given to his uncle, Charles IX. (1604), and the succession extended to females. Gustavus Adolphus, the son of Charles, and grandson of Vasa, raised the glory of his country (1611-32). The virtues and energies of this prince, the sagacity of his views, the admirable order which he introduced into every branch of the administration, endeared him to his subjects; while his military exploits, and his superiority in the art of war, fixed upon him the admiration of all Europe. He brought the wars which he had to sustain with Denmark, Russia, and Poland, to a most triumphant conclusion. Gustavus, in alliance with France, next joined the Protestant league against the ambition of the house of Austria, and in 1630 carried an army of 15,000 veteran soldiers into Germany, and in the space of two years and a-half overran two-thirds of the empire. He defeated the celebrated Tilly at the famous battle of Leipsic (1631), and extended his conquests from the shores of the Baltic to the Rhine and the Danube. This great prince, who had made war a new science, and accustomed his army to order, and a system of tactics never before known, perished in the battle of Lutzen (1632), which the Swedes gained by the skilful dispositions he had formed. The war was continued under the minority of Queen Christina, his daughter and heir; and at the general peace of Westphalia in 1648, Sweden obtained an extension of territory which made her the dominant power of the North. Christina's successor, her cousin, Charles Gustavus X., sustained the military reputation of the nation in his wars with the Danes and Poles, and employed himself in repressing the power of the nobles, which his early death (1660) left to be afterwards completed by his son, then an infant. Charles XI. was a warrior, like all his ancestors, and more despotic than any of them. He reclaimed all the crown lands alienated since 1609: he deprived the senate of its legislative powers, and reduced it to a consulting body; and the burgher and peasant houses in the diet conferred on him the power of altering the constitution at his pleasure, to enable him to humble the nobles. This arbitrary prince encouraged trade and manufactures; and on his death, at the early age of forty-two (1697), he left his army and fleet in the best condition, with a treasury in good order, and managed by able ministers. He was succeeded by his son, Charles XII., then fifteen years old.]

4. Russia is said to have received the light of Christianity in the tenth century, but its history is utterly unknown till the middle of the fifteenth. At that period, Ivan (Vasilovich the Great) redeemed the empire from its subjection to the Tartar Khans of Kipzack (called also the Grand Horde), and extended its limits. [He married Sophia, neice of the last emperor of Constantinople: hence the claim to the Greek empire, the adoption of the title of Czar (Cæsar), and the double eagle as the imperial arms. He suppressed the residence of Tartar envoys at his court, and refused to pay the tribute which had been exacted for centuries. He preserved internal peace by severe despotism, and secured his frontiers by successful warfare (1462—1505).] His immediate successors maintained a considerable splendour as sovereigns; but their dominions were uncultivated, and their subjects barbarians. [On the death of Feodor Ivanovich in 1598, the reigning family of the ancient sovereigns of Russia, the descendants of Ruric the Norman, became extinct, after having governed Russia seven hundred and six years, under fifty-two sovereigns. After this, Russia presented a shocking spectacle of confusion and carnage, until, in 1613, Michael Romanoff, son of the archbishop of Rostow, and descended by females from the house of Ruric, was elected Czar. Under this new dynasty, the government became consolidated; and Russia rapidly advanced in civilization, and began to participate in the general policy of Europe.] Alexis, the son of Michael, and father of Peter the Great, was the first who published a code of laws (1649). It was not till the end of the sixteenth century that Siberia was added to the empire, which till then was bounded by the limits of Europe.

5. Peter, the youngest son of the emperor Alexis, became master of the empire in 1689, by setting aside a weak elder brother (Ivan), and banishing a factious sister (Sophia), who had seized the government. Utterly uneducated, his youth had been spent in debauchery; but his new situation immediately displayed his talents, and gave birth to the wisest plans for the improvement of a barbarous people. The army and navy demanded his first attention. He began by breaking the turbulent militia of the Strelitzes, and by degrees formed a regular army of 12,000 men, on the strictest model of discipline. He employed some Dutchmen to build a small fleet, and made the first experiment of his arms in taking Azof from the Turks (1696).

6. Having gained the little instruction he possessed from his reign, Peter resolved to travel in search of knowledge. Appointing his tutor, Le Fort, an able Genevese, his ambassador, he travelled as a private person in his suite through Germany to Holland, and studied the art of ship-building, by working in the docks with his own hands. Thence he passed to England, and in a similar manner acquired the knowledge of every art fitted for the improvement of his kingdom. The relative sciences

were cultivated with the same ardour and success; and in sixteen months he returned to Moscow, to reduce those important acquisitions into practice.

6. Regiments were raised, and trained to exercise on the German model; the finances arranged and systematized; the church reformed by new canons and regulations; the patriarchate abolished; and a much-abused civil and criminal jurisdiction taken from the clergy. It was necessary to carry this reform even to the abolition of the national dress, and the suppression of ancient usages and habits of life—innovations reluctantly submitted to, but enforced by absolute power.

7. While this great genius was thus employed in new-modeling and polishing a barbarous empire, a competitor arose to dispute with him the sovereignty of the North, and divide the admiration of Europe. Charles XII. succeeded to the throne of Sweden (1695) at fifteen years of age—a prince whose singular heroism of character and extraordinary achievements have ranked him with the greatest conquerors of antiquity. The situation of his kingdom speedily brought his genius into display. Russia, Poland, and Denmark, joined in a league to seize and share his dominions. The attack was begun by the Danes on Holstein (1700), while the king of Poland invaded Livonia, and the czar Ingria. Charles immediately landed an army on Zealand, at the gates of Copenhagen; and in six weeks forced the Dane to purchase the safety of his capital and kingdom, by laying down his arms, and making full indemnity to the duke of Holstein. The Swedish monarch now hastened into Ingria; and, at the battle of Narva, defeated 60,000 of the Russians, and took 30,000 prisoners. Such was the first campaign of Charles XII., then a boy of seventeen.

8. Poland was destined to receive a yet more humiliating chastisement. Charles reduced Courland and Lithuania, penetrated into the heart of the kingdom, and subdued the capitals of Warsaw and Cracow (1703). He then assembled the states, declared King Augustus deposed, and signified his pleasure that Stanislaus, his own dependant, should be elected sovereign of Poland. The factions of the kingdom aided this revolution, and the will of Charles was complied with. The deposed king retired to his electoral dominions of Saxony.

9. A negotiation begun with the czar was abruptly terminated by Charles, who declared he would only negotiate at Moscow; and entering the Russian dominions with 45,000 men, he was in the way of making good his threat, when he was induced, by a treacherous promise of aid from the Cossacks, to march through the Ukraine in the dead of winter. His army was wasted by fatigue and famine, when he was encountered by the czar at Poltowa; and the fate of Russia, Sweden, and Poland, hung upon that battle. Charles was entirely defeated; 9000 Swedes fell in the field, and 14,000 were taken prisoners (May 9, 1709).

Augustus was restored to the throne of Poland, and the czar took possession of Finland and Livonia.

10. With the wreck of his army, reduced to 1,800 men, Charles retreated into the Turkish dominions, and formed a camp near Bender. He endeavoured to prevail with the grand seignior to arm against the czar, and succeeded, after a long negotiation. Two hundred thousand Turks took the field; and the czar's army, infinitely inferior in number, was surrounded, and, after ineffectual resistance, forced to capitulate to the grand vizier (1711). The news of this capitulation was death to all the hopes of Charles; and his subsequent conduct seems the result of frenzy. The grand seignior having intimated his desire that the Swedes should quit his territories, Charles fortified his camp, and declared that he would defend it to the last extremity. After every means ineffectually tried to make him alter this resolution, he was attacked by the Turkish army, and taken fighting sword in hand, amidst a massacre of his troops. Charles, after having remained above five years in Turkey, returned to his own dominions, towards the end of 1714.

11. The czar and the king of Denmark were in the meantime tearing Sweden to pieces. Charles returned in disguise with two of his officers to his own dominions, and immediately conceived the design of wresting Norway from Denmark. Failing in the outset of this enterprise, he was persuaded by Gortz, his prime-minister, to engage in another—the dethroning of George II., seizing a part of his continental dominions, and placing the pretender James on the throne of England. This project was concerted between Gortz and Alberoni, prime-minister of Philip V. of Spain. The czar, Peter, joined in the scheme, and made peace with Sweden; but an unforeseen event broke all their measures. In besieging the Norwegian fortress of Frederickshall, Charles XII. was killed by a cannon-ball, 11th of December, 1718.

12. Sweden gained by the death of Charles a reformation of her government, and a salutary limitation of the arbitrary power of the sovereign. His sister Ulrica succeeded to the throne, and raised to it her husband, Frederick, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The states made peace with all the hostile powers. The czar was now engaged in a war with Persia, in the view of obtaining the command and commerce of the Caspian. This object he accomplished, and gained, by cession from Shah Tahmasp, four provinces of the Persian empire—Daghestan, Ghilan, Shirwan, and Mazanderan (1723), which were retained till 1732.

13. Peter the Great died on the 28th of January, 1725, and was succeeded by his widow, the czarina Catherine I., formerly a Livonian captive, but who possessed merit equal to her elevated situation. His only son, Alexis Petrowitz, had been condemned to lose his life for treason; and the mode of his death, which immediately followed *his* condemnation, is at this moment unknown.

Russia owes to Peter the Great all those beneficial improvements which have raised her, within the period of a century, from barbarism and obscurity, to the highest rank among the powers of Europe. [He was the first czar who assumed the title of "Emperor of all the Russias," 1723.]

SECTION XXXIII.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF SCIENCE AND LITERATURE IN EUROPE, FROM THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE END OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. WE have seen how much literature and the sciences were indebted to the art of printing for their advancement and dissemination towards the end of the fifteenth century. (See M. A., Sect. XXXIII., § 12.) From that period, classical learning, criticism, poetry, and history, made a rapid progress in most of the kingdoms of Europe. Philosophy did not keep pace. The dogmas of Aristotle had possession of the schools down to the seventeenth century, and had engrafted themselves even on the doctrines of theology. It required a superior genius to dissipate this mist of error, and break those fetters on all advancement in useful science; and such was the great Bacon, Lord Verulam, the most profound philosopher, and perhaps the most universal genius, that any age ever produced (d. 1626). We find in his works an estimate of the actual attainments in all the sciences, a catalogue of the desiderata in each department, and a detail of the methods best suited to prosecute improvement and new discoveries. In fine, we owe to Bacon the sure method of advancing in knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature, instead of system and conjecture. Principal works: *De Dignitate et Augmentis Scientiarum*—*Novum Organum Scientiarum*.

2. The philosophy of Bacon produced its effect only by slow degrees. Gassendi (styled by Gibbon the most learned of the philosophers of his age, and the most philosophical of the learned; died 1655), though he exposed the doctrines of Aristotle, was still a theorist, and attempted to revive the atomic system of Epicurus. Des Cartes (d. 1650) followed in the same track, and reared a whimsical theory of the universe, produced, as he supposed, by the fortuitous combination of atoms, moving in vortices through the immensity of space—a theory recommended by the ingenuity with which it was supported, and its apparently solving many of the phenomena of nature. Copernicus (a Prussian; d. 1543) had, a century before, published his system of the planets, which, though condemned by the church, was received by Des Cartes and the best philosophers.

Galileo, in 1609, constructed telescopes (Sect. XXXIV., and discovered the satellites of the larger planets, and motions; for which he was rewarded by imprisonment, as a heretic of the Copernican heresy. Kepler (d. 1630) investigated the laws which regulate the motions of the planets, and the analogy between their distances from the sun and periodical motions. The discoveries in astronomy led to improvements in navigation, and a great advancement of geometry in all its branches. Napier, in 1614, abridged calculation by the invention of logarithms. Torricelli (d. 1647) invented the barometer, and determined the weight of the atmosphere. In 1616, Harvey (1578-1634) discovered the circulation of the blood.

The Royal Society, which originated from private meetings of English philosophers, was incorporated by Charles II. in 1662, and has greatly contributed to the advancement of the natural and useful arts. The Royal Academy of Sciences was founded in 1666, by Louis XIV.; and similar institutions were founded in most of the countries of Europe; among which there was a free communication of science, and a laudable emulation excited by the publication of their transactions.

At the end of the seventeenth century arose the immortal Isaac Newton (b. 1642, d. 1727), who, by exhausting the most important discoveries of the laws of nature, has rendered it impossible for posterity to eclipse his fame. He had discovered, before the close of twenty-four, the theory of universal gravitation—a theory which solves the chief phenomena of nature, and which regulates the whole machine of the universe. His discovery of light and colours is the foundation of the whole science of optics; and his *Principia* (published in 1687), the basis and foundation of all philosophy.

John Locke (b. 1632, d. 1704), the contemporary of Newton, fully applied Lord Bacon's mode of investigation to the study of the human mind; and, utterly rejecting the systems of the scholastic philosophers, examined the soul by attending to its operations.

From the simple fact that all knowledge is progressive, that an infant gains its ideas gradually through the medium of the senses, he drew the general conclusion, that there are no ideas in the mind, but all are either immediate perceptions derived by the senses, or acts of the mind reflecting on those perceptions—a conclusion which has been obstinately controverted chiefly by drawing from it false consequences, but which has never yet been shaken.

The progress of literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, was equally remarkable with that of science and philosophy.

Lucretius Trissino (d. 1550) was the first of the moderns who wrote an epic poem in the language of his country, *L'Italia da Goti*, and the first Italian who wrote a regular tragedy, *Il Sophonisba*. Of much superior merit to the epic poem of Virgil, is the *Lusiad* of the Portuguese Camoens (d. 1579), a

work abounding in passages of high poetic beauty, and displaying a sublime imagination. In the end of the sixteenth century, Spain produced the *Araucana* of Ercilla (d. after 1590), an epic poem of great inequality of merit, but frequently exhibiting novelty of figures and bold conceptions. The subject is a revolt of the Peruvians against the Spaniards.

8. But the principal epic poems of this age are the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto (d. 1533), and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso (d. 1595); the former, a work most irregular in its plan, most unconnected and desultory in its conduct, most extravagant and absurd in the characters of its persons, but displaying alternately every excellence of poetry, in the various departments of the descriptive, comic, satiric, moral, and sublime. The *Gierusalemme* of Tasso, of a regular plan and perfect polish in its structure, has been frequently brought in comparison with the equally high-finished poem of the *Æneid*; nor does the Italian suffer much in the comparison. There is a romantic charm both in the incidents and characters of his poem, which must ever render it a favourite with all readers of genuine taste.

9. From the time of Tasso, the genius of epic poetry lay dormant for a century, till the days of Milton (d. 1694): for the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser (d. 1596) is rather a romantic allegory, than an epic poem. The *Paradise Lost*, compared with the great poems of antiquity, is more irregular and less perfect as a whole than the *Iliad*, *Æneid*, and *Odyssey*, but exhibits in detached parts more of the sublime and beautiful than them all. It has been well remarked, that the inequality of this poem arises in a great measure from the nature of the subject, of which some parts are the most lofty that can enter into the human mind: and others could only have been supported by a laborious elegance and polish, which the author's genius could not stoop to bestow.

10. Lyric poetry was cultivated in the sixteenth century, in Italy, France, and England, but with no high success. The lesser poems of Ariosto and Tasso have no tincture of the genius displayed in their greater works. Chiabrera (Italian; d. 1637) is perhaps the only lyric poet of this period that merits distinction. In France, Ronsard (called the prince of French poets; d. 1585) and Bellay (d. 1560) imitated Petrarch, with all his false wit, but without his passion. Marot (d. 1544), however, in the naïveté and easy vein of his humour, is justly accounted the master of La Fontaine (d. 1694). In the beginning of the seventeenth century, French versification received a considerable polish from the compositions of Racan (d. 1670), and yet more from those of Malherbe (the father of French lyric poetry; d. 1628): and towards the end of that century, lyric poetry was cultivated with high success by La Farre, Chapelle, and Bachaumont, Chaulieu, and Gresset.

11. The English lyric poetry of the sixteenth century—of Spenser, Surrey, Harrington, Sydney, and even Shakespeare—is

harsh and inharmonious; nor is much improvement discernible till the time of Cowley (d. 1667) and Waller (d. 1687.) The merit of Cowley as a lyric poet was too highly prized in his own age, and is underrated in ours. With all his false wit, pedantry, and obscurity, he is often both sublime and pathetic in no moderate degree. The lyric ode in the third book of the *Davidis* has few parallels in the English language. As a prose writer, Cowley shines in that age with superior excellence. Waller is more polished and harmonious than any of the preceding or contemporary poets; but his wit is quaint, and his elevation too frequently bombast.

12. Dryden (d. 1701), in the end of the seventeenth century, carried lyric poetry to its highest perfection. His Ode on St. Cecilia's Day surpasses all the lyric compositions both of antiquity and modern times. He shines conspicuously as a satirist, possessing the keen and caustic wit, without the indelicacy, of Juvenal or Horace. His versions from Chaucer and Boccaccio are easy and spirited, and display a happy talent for poetical narrative. His numerous dramatic pieces, though exhibiting both invention and poetic beauty, are deficient in true passion, and in the just delineation of character.

13. It was not till the end of the sixteenth century that the drama in Europe began to furnish a rational entertainment. At that period, Lope de Vega (d. 1635) and Calderona (d. 1687) in Spain, and Shakspeare (d. 1616) in England, produced those pieces which, though irregular and stained with blemishes, are at this day the admiration of their countrymen. The Spanish plays of that age have been a rich mine for succeeding dramatists, both among the French, Italians, and English. The merits of Shakspeare are familiar to every person of taste. Ignorant of the rules of his art, he is the pure child of nature, and thus exhibits often her caprices and absurdities; but these are redeemed by the most transcendent beauties. The old English drama is, with all its irregularities, incomparably superior to the modern, both in touching the passions and in displaying just views of human character. The persons are more discriminated by various and appropriate features, and the nicer shades of nearly resembling characters are thus more distinctly marked. The mixture of the comic and tragic in the same plot, though condemned by modern practice, is a great source of pleasure in the pieces of Shakspeare and his contemporaries; nor is there anything in such a mixture, but what is consonant to nature. To a person of true taste, it will be found often to heighten, by contrast, the capital emotion to be excited.

14. The compositions for the French stage, in the end of the seventeenth century, are strictly conformable to dramatic rules, and many of those pieces are models of a correct and polished taste. The morality of the French drama of that age and the next is in general purer than ours; but their pieces are deficient

in the nice delineation of character, and in the power of exciting the passions. Corneille (d. 1684) and Racine (d. 1699) brought the French tragedy to its highest elevation, as Moliere (d. 1673) the comedy. Corneille has more grandeur and sublimity than his rival, who excels him in the tender and pathetic. The comedies of Moliere, highly amusing in the present time, were more particularly valuable in the age when they were written, and had a sensible effect in correcting its prevailing follies—the pedantry of the ladies, the ignorance and quackery of the physicians, and the pride and arrogance of the French noblesse. The last of the eminent dramatists who adorned France in the seventeenth century was the elder Crebillon (d. 1764), who drew many sublime and impassioned scenes from the source of terror; and who, in all his works, was as eminently the friend of virtue as his worthless son has been the pander of vice.

15. The most eminent historians of the sixteenth century are, De Thou (F.; d. 1617), Davila (I.; d. 1631), and Machiavel (I.; d. 1527). De Thou has written the annals of his own time, from 1545 to 1607, with great judgment, and in most elegant Latin composition. The history of Davila, the Annals of the Civil Wars of France in the time of the Leagues, though the work of a partisan, is composed with no common degree of candour and impartiality. Machiavel wrote, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, the History of Florence, of which the style is classical, and the matter well arranged, but too much interrupted by reflections and political discussions. In the seventeenth century, Bentivoglio (I.; d. 1644) composed his History of the Civil Wars of Flanders, with the most accurate knowledge of his subject, perspicuity of narrative, and eloquence of style. Among the English historians in the beginning of that period, Raleigh (d. 1617) is the most distinguished, though his History of the World is, in point of style, inferior to the judgment shown in the arrangement of the matter. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, Clarendon's History of the Rebellion is a work of the highest merit, whether we consider the authenticity of its facts, the deep knowledge of human nature displayed in the delineation of the characters, or the grave and manly eloquence of the style. If, in the opposition of political opinions, he has been deemed too partial in the defence of his sovereign (Charles I.), even his adversaries have admitted his perfect integrity and entire conviction of the rectitude of the cause which he supports.

PART FOURTH.

MODERN HISTORY.

SECTION I.

ENGLAND, FROM THE REVOLUTION OF 1688 TO THE DEATH
OF GEORGE II. (1760.)

Character of the Revolution of 1688.—The Revolution of 1688 was the era of what is usually termed the English Constitution. The great fact which distinguished this period was not mere overthrow of one dynasty, and the establishment of another: it was the termination of a contest which had been carried on for centuries between the crown and the parliament, rather, the aristocracy. The early Norman monarchs were absolute; but their powerful barons had imposed limitations on the exercise of the royal prerogative, for their own security; and, towards the end of the reign of Elizabeth, the new middle class of landholders, which had been created by the extensive division of property, particularly of the church lands, having become predominant in the House of Commons, showed a desire to limit still further the royal authority. Elizabeth and James I. discovered that the want of money alone could render a parliament formidable to their power. Accordingly, the one practised a systematic parsimony; the other maintained a pacific policy, in opposition to the recommendation of parliament, rather than make concessions, by which alone parliamentary grants could be obtained. The necessities of Charles I., and the dissipation of the revenue by his predecessors, obliged him to apply to parliament; and, as the House of Commons would only grant supplies on condition of his surrendering certain rights of the crown which had always been enjoyed, he resorted to illegal means of raising a revenue, independent of parliament, which led to his execution and the fall of the monarchy. Public liberty was degraded in the reign of Charles II. The abolition of the feudal payments on the succession to estates at the Restoration, which had contributed nearly one-half of the ancient revenue, and the substitution of excise taxes and increased customs-duties, which transferred the expenses of government from the landholders to the community, appeared to have calmed the parliamentary opposition during his reign; and had James II. not formed the high-church party in England, and the Episcopalian

and Presbyterians of Scotland, by a too early betrayal of his intention to give place and power only to the Catholics, he might have rendered the monarchy despotic. The House of Commons even settled on James for life, on his accession, a greater revenue than any monarch of England had ever enjoyed.* The Revolution was therefore a national expression of feeling, in opposition to Popery, and in favour of religious liberty. It was also greatly promoted by clamour of the partisans of William against the new system of taxation, which had transferred the expenses of the state from the land upon the commodities consumed by the people, and the obnoxious duty of hearth-money. The Revolution is rendered memorable for its declaration, that absolute monarchy had ceased to exist, and for its abolition of the doctrine of divine right and non-resistance. It inverted the relationship which heretofore existed between the law and the ruling power, by the practical subjection of the latter to the former, and by its assertion that the sovereign power existed in the people. The limitations under which the new monarch was to accede to the throne are contained in the *Declaration of Rights*, which was annexed to the settlement (see page 436). It should be thoroughly understood that this instrument was not a reform bill: it was merely a recital of ancient laws which had been violated, and a security against their future violation; it was merely a declaratory, not a remedial measure; it neither trenched upon the legal power of the crown, nor enlarged the sphere of popular and parliamentary privilege; it merely recapitulated rights which previously existed, as a firm and constitutional basis of future reform. The declaration was confirmed by the legislature in the Bill of Rights, to which was added the important provision, that communion with the Church of Rome, or marriage with a Romanist, should for ever exclude from the crown and government of the realm. On these terms, William III., prince of Orange, stadtholder of Holland, and husband of Mary, daughter of James II., accepted the throne, February 13, 1689.

2. *Improvements in the Constitution, under William III.—1.* Among the principal advantages resulting from the Revolution, was the *Act of Toleration*, the earliest charter of religious liberty. This act exempted from legal penalties those Dissenters who were willing to take the oath of allegiance, and to subscribe the declaration against Popery; and those ministers of dissenting

* The following is an account of the principal branches of his revenue in 1688, clear of all deductions, as returned to parliament (Commons Journal, vol x., p. 37).

Tonnage and poundage (5 per-cent. customs) duties, including the wool, coal, and salt farm,	£600,000
Excise on beer and ale,	686,383
Hearth-money,	245,000
Post-office,	65,000
Wine licenses,	10,000
New impositions on wine and vinegar,	172,901
Duties on tobacco and sugar,	148,861
Duty on French linen, brandy, silk, &c.,	93,710

£2,001,855

congregations, who should subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles, except the thirty-fourth and two succeeding articles, and a part of the twentieth. William was an enemy to persecution, and would gladly have comprised in this statute the abolition of the Test Act; but the spirit of party was too strong; and it was not until the demoralizing effects of this statute had been felt for a century and a half by the conscientious portion of the community, that it was expunged from the statute-book, in our own day. The Toleration Act of 1689 afforded, indeed, but a scanty measure of reform: its efficiency, however, was much promoted by the lenience, with which its provisions were enforced.—2. Another important benefit derived from the Revolution, was the *Settlement of the Revenue*. It had been the practice to settle on the king, at the commencement of his reign, the produce of certain taxes, sufficient to provide for the maintenance of the crown and the ordinary expense of the public service—the extraordinary expenses, as those of war, being defrayed by special grants levied by assessments on property. But the actual misapplication of the revenue in the late reigns; the temptation which was thereby offered to the sovereign, if warlike, to maintain from his own resources a standing army, or, if frugal and pacific, to govern without summoning a parliament at all; and the alarming extravagance which had marked the career of Charles II., determined the parliament, in 1689, to set apart a stipulated sum for the support of the crown, and to devote the rest of the public money to certain specified services, an account of which should be annually submitted to the House of Commons. 3. A third reform was the *Regulation of Trials in cases of high-treason*—a measure loudly called for by the iniquitous condemnations to be found in the earlier volumes of the State Trials. The statute of 1695 provides, that all persons indicted for high-treason, or misprision of treason, should be furnished with a copy of the indictment five days before the trial—a period extended by a subsequent act to ten days; that they should be supplied with a copy of the pannel of jurors, two days before their trial; that they should be empowered to make their defence by counsel, and to have their witnesses examined on oath; that no person should be indicted, except upon the oaths of two lawful witnesses, both attesting the same overt act, or each attesting a separate overt act of the same treason; and that prosecutions be limited to the term of three years after commission of the offence. A clause was inserted, enacting that a peer should be tried by the whole peerage.—4. Another important consequence of the Revolution was the establishment of the *Liberty of the Press*. From the time of Henry VIII., every government had controlled the means of free discussion, by the operation of the Licensing Act. In 1693 this act expired, and has never since been renewed.—5. Lastly, the duration of parliament, which under Charles II. had extended to a period of seventeen years,

was limited in 1694 by the *Triennial Act*, which provided that every parliament should cease and determine within three years from its meeting. Several of these measures were at first resisted by the crown; but the steady perseverance, and eventual success of the parliament, demonstrated the growth of an opinion, that all power is a trust for the good of the community, and that, when abused, it may be withdrawn.

3. *Invasion of Ireland by James II.*—As soon as James had vacated the English throne he repaired to France, where he was cordially received by Louis XIV., and took up his abode in the castle of St. Germain. His only hope of recovering his forfeited dominions depended on his adherents in Ireland and Scotland. Accordingly, in March, 1689, he landed at Kinsale, and made a public entry into Dublin. Here he met the Irish parliament, and assented to a bill for repealing the Act of Settlement, by which means the Protestants lost their estates, and were mostly ruined: three thousand were proscribed; Ireland was declared independent of the English parliament; and the whole island submitted to James, except Londonderry, which, after braving all the horrors of a siege and famine, was relieved by Kirke, one of William's generals. In the following year, William concluded the war in person, on the banks of the Boyne (July 1, 1691). James was defeated, and returned to St. Germain. The whole of Ireland was subdued, and 12,000 Irish emigrated to France. In 1692, a French fleet was equipped for the restoration of James, but was entirely defeated by Admiral Russel, off La Hogue. On the death of Queen Mary, the friends of James renewed their negotiations on his behalf. A new Jacobite conspiracy was formed for the assassination of William; but the conspirators were detected, and punished in 1696 by forms of law inconsistent with those prescribed by the Bill of Rights. After some retaliations on the French, Louis XIV. was compelled by the *treaty of Ryswick*, in 1697, to recognise the title of William, which, since the queen's death, had become the subject of dispute; and thus were the pretensions of James set aside, and the intrigues of war terminated for several years. James II. died at St. Germain, (Sept. 16, 1701), leaving a son, whom Louis proclaimed king of England—a title which was also recognised by the king of Spain, the duke of Savoy, and the pope. The national resentment of this insult and breach of faith led to some decided measures of parliament: the pretended Prince of Wales, and the queen, who acted as regent for the pretender, were attainted; and a *bill of abjuration* was passed, by which an oath was required of all civil and ecclesiastical officers, acknowledging William as rightful and lawful king, and denying any right or title to the pretended Prince of Wales.

4. *Affairs of Scotland under William III.*—Scotland followed the example of England: a declaration and claim of rights was drawn up, and an act of settlement passed in favour of William and

Mary. The partisans of James, after gaining a signal victory over the troops of William at Killiecrankie, under Gordon and Dundee, were obliged to capitulate; and William and Mary were proclaimed. The Scottish declaration of rights affirmed, among other things, that Prelacy and precedence in ecclesiastical office ought to be abolished in favour of the Presbyterian form of church government. The struggle between the advocates of these two forms of discipline had been a melancholy one for Scotland. To enforce Prelacy on a Presbyterian population, every resource which war, massacre, devastation, the boots, and the thumb-screw could suggest, had been exhausted. The abolition, therefore, of the offensive institution, and the confirmation of that to which the nation was attached, may be reckoned among the most beneficial acts of William's reign. The convention of estates assumed the title of a parliament, and continued to sit during the king's reign. Many important reforms were secured during its session, besides those contained in the declaration of rights: twenty-six members were added to the representatives of counties; the tyrannical measures of the Stuart kings were repealed; and the lords of articles,* the chief grievance of the parliament, abolished. By a subsequent act, security was afforded against unjust imprisonment: the prisoner was to be released on bail within twenty-four hours, on application to a judge, unless committed for a capital offence; in this case, he was to be tried within sixty days. Notwithstanding these constitutional improvements, considerable disaffection was prevalent at this period in Scotland, and is referred by Mr Hallam to "the condition of an ancient, independent kingdom, inhabited by a proud, high-spirited people, relatively to another kingdom, which they had long regarded with enmity, still with jealousy; but to which, in spite of their theoretical equality, they were kept in subordination by an insurmountable necessity." To this general sentiment must be added the irritation caused by the inhuman massacre of the inhabitants of Glencoe, perpetrated by the order of William, in 1691; and the disappointment occasioned by his foiling the Scottish project of planting a colony on the Isthmus of Darien in 1699.

5. *Revenue; Finance; Public Debt.*—The immediate consequence of the Revolution, was an extraordinary increase in the expenditure of government. Parliament had acquired a complete control over the crown; and its leaders were at liberty to appropriate the public property, and to expend the revenue as they could agree among themselves. So long as the monarch had an independent administrative power, the parliament was

* The king empowered the commissioner to choose eight bishops, whom he authorised to nominate eight noblemen; these together chose eight barons and eight burgesses; and this whole number, in conjunction with the officers of state as supernumeraries, constituted the lords of the articles. This committee possessed the sole exclusive right and liberty of bringing in motions, making overtures for redressing wrongs, and proposing means and expedients for the relief and benefit of the subjects.—*Proceedings of the Scots Parliament Vindicated.*

sparing in its grants, in order that its authority might be felt. Until the accession of Charles I., the ordinary expenses of the court and the state had been principally defrayed by the rent of the royal domains, the payments on the succession to lands held of the crown, and the five-per-cent. customs duties. Excise duties were unknown until the civil wars, and then only imposed as a temporary expedient until order was re-established. They were partly continued during the Commonwealth; but assessments on real and personal property were made the principal sources of revenue, as had always been the practice. At the Restoration, the system was reversed: excise and customs duties were then made the primary sources of income, and land taxes the supplementary and extraordinary in time of war. Charles II. stipulated with the great landholders, who had the power to promote his restoration, to relinquish the feudal prerogatives and claims on the land (which had contributed about one-half of the ancient revenue, and had long been felt as vexatious and unequal in their pressure) for a commutation on an equitable principle. The feudal rights of the crown were abolished by statute (c. 24, 1660); but the Commons afterwards determined, by a majority of two, that the crown should be indemnified, not by a rent charge on the lands exempted, but by increased excise duties on liquors sold by retail, which illustrates the predominance of the landholders in parliament. On the accession of James II., his ordinary income was fixed at two millions (no provision being made for the army and navy), to be raised in the same manner—a larger revenue than any English monarch had ever enjoyed. The partisans of William inveighed not only at the amount, but also against the mode in which it was to be raised, as burdensome to the community and an exemption to the landholders. Accordingly, after the Revolution, notwithstanding that the power of parliament had been greatly increased, a return was made to assessments on property, as the principal source of revenue. During the Commonwealth, as much as eight shillings in the pound on the rental of land had been levied during the war, in lieu of military services, and four shillings as the peace assessment (see page 430). In 1692, a land-tax, at the latter rate on real estate, and twenty-four shillings for every £100 of personal estate (which, assuming the annual value of property at £6, rated both alike) was imposed, as in the nature of a commutation for the feudal profits abolished at the Restoration, and produced about two millions, equal to the ordinary revenue of James II. This land tax was continued at the same rate for five years in succession, and annually afterwards,* sometimes at less, but generally at the same rate (whatever were the exigencies of the state), until the year 1798, when the original quota

* In 1697, the principle of the land tax act was altered. The sum to be raised was then fixed, and personal estate was made the primary subject of assessment, at a specified rate, while real estate was only liable for the deficiency. This continued

on each parish became a fixed payment, in place of increasing with the improved value of the lands; the consequence being, that in 1798, and at present, the land tax is less than *one penny* in the pound in some places, and in others nearly four shillings. Until the Revolution, parliament was opposed to wars, as the expense fell on the land; but when it determined not to allow an increase of the land tax, and that the expense must be defrayed by taxes on articles of consumption, and by loans, then William III. was allowed to gratify his passion for war. All writers are agreed that from that time a reckless extravagance was the practice of every cabinet. During the reign of William, his ministers appropriated to themselves, and granted away the crown lands without consideration, as it was said, to increase the dependence of the sovereign. They were protected from further dilapidation by statute, on the accession of Anne. The ministers of William have also been accused of embezzling the revenue, and opposing inquiry. A resolution of the House of Commons declared, in 1701, "that it was notorious, that many millions of money had been given to his majesty for the service of the public, which remain unaccounted for." It was stated at the time, that in five years, £10,864,873 had been embezzled or unaccounted for. Every measure proposed for the public benefit was rendered abortive, the leading object of members being to enrich themselves, and to exempt their lands from taxation. Ministers favoured these views, to obtain support to carry their measures. New offices were created, and pensions granted, to increase the ministerial influence, regardless of the expense. The taxes were increased, the revenue being raised from customs, excise, lotteries, land taxes, poll taxes, taxes on marriages, births, &c. In 1694, the Bank of England was incorporated, and lent a capital of £1,200,000 at 8 per cent., with permission to issue notes payable on demand. The East India Company also obtained a new charter, on lending two millions at 8 per cent. Money was also borrowed on the most extravagant terms on exchequer bills, and by temporary life and perpetual annuities. The total sum raised during the thirteen years' reign of William III. was—

Customs,	£13,296,833
Excise,	13,649,328
Land tax,	19,174,059
Poll taxes,	2,557,642
On marriages, births, &c.	275,517
Various articles (including permanent loans),	9,745,300
Temporary loans unpaid,	13,348,680

£72,047,369

to be the principle of every subsequent act, with one exception, until 1836, when personal estate was exempted; but there is no evidence that it was ever acted upon, thus showing that the assessment had been illegally levied for 139 years, and that the landholders had been afraid to claim the exemption, lest inquiry should lead to an assessment on the improved rental of their property.

Giving an annual expenditure of upwards of five millions and a-half; and leaving, at the death of William III., a public debt amounting to upwards of sixteen millions.

6. *State of Parties under Anne.*—The Act of Settlement of 1689 had determined that after William and Mary, and in default of their having issue, the crown should descend to Anne Stuart, younger sister of Mary, and a Protestant, to the exclusion of their brother, who had been brought up in the Romish faith. Accordingly, in 1702, Anne ascended the throne of England. She was wife to the Prince of Denmark, who was, however, no more than her first subject. The events of this reign were so controlled by conflicting politics, that it is necessary to understand the distinctive principles which actuated the two leading parties of the state, the *Whigs* and the *Tories*. "Both of these parties, it is material to observe, agreed in the maintenance of the constitution; that is, in the administration of government by a hereditary sovereign, and in the concurrence of that sovereign with the two houses of parliament in legislation, as well as in those other institutions which have been reckoned most ancient and fundamental. A favourer of unlimited monarchy was not a tory, neither was a republican a whig. Lord Clarendon was a tory, Hobbes was not; Bishop Hoadley was a whig, Milton was not. But they differed mainly in this: that, to a tory, the constitution, inasmuch as it was the constitution, was an ultimate point, beyond which he never looked, and from which he thought it altogether impossible to swerve; whereas a whig deemed all forms of government subordinate to the public good, and therefore liable to change when they should cease to promote that object. Within those bounds, which he, as well as his antagonist, meant not to transgress, and rejecting all unnecessary innovation, the whig had a natural tendency to political improvement; the tory, an aversion to it. The one loved to descant on liberty and the rights of mankind; the other, on the mischiefs of sedition, and the rights of kings. Though both, as I have said, admitted a common principle (the maintenance of the constitution); yet, this made the privileges of the subject—that, the crown's prerogative—his peculiar care. Hence, it seemed likely, that through passion and circumstance the tory might aid in establishing despotism, or the whig in subverting monarchy. The former was generally hostile to the liberty of the press and to freedom of inquiry, especially in religion; the latter, their friend. The principle of the one, in short, was amelioration; of the other, conservation."*

7. *Continental War; Marlborough.*—The general character of the war of the Spanish succession, and its influence upon the European system, will be described in the following section. The negotiations of the grand alliance, commenced by William, were eagerly carried on by his successor, who appointed Marl-

* Hallam's Constitutional History, ch. 16.

borough general of her forces at home and abroad. The campaign began in July, 1702. In Flanders, Marlborough drove the Duke of Burgundy from the field, and recovered some towns which were of importance for the commerce of Holland; he then pursued Boufflers to Liege, which he took by assault. In 1704, Marlborough and Prince Eugene carried the war into Germany, and gained a complete victory at Blenheim over the combined forces of the French and Bavarians. In 1706, the English general again took the field in Flanders, and entirely defeated the French under Villeroy and Marsin, at Ramillies. The result of this victory was the immediate conquest of all Brabant. After an ineffectual negotiation for peace on the part of Louis, another desperate conflict took place, in 1709, at Malplaquet. Marlborough was again victorious, though at a vast expenditure of life; while the French, without half the loss, were obliged to retire from the field. But the intrigues of a court were never more perilous to a favourite than in the present reign. So brilliant and rapid had been the success of Marlborough, that he had eclipsed every rival for royal favour—had been the people's idol, and, in the bold language of some of his parliamentary admirers, had actually "retrieved" the honour of the nation. Yet he fell by the wiles of a woman. The queen, wearied of the insolence of her celebrated favourite, the Duchess of Marlborough, transferred her private favour to Mrs Masham. This artful woman, playing upon the queen's known partiality for the tories, contrived, in 1707, the downfall of the whig Godolphin ministry, and the substitution of a tory cabinet, in the hands of Harley and St. John. The effects of the change were soon felt by Marlborough: he became an object of hatred and censure to the parliament. In 1711 he was deprived of all his employments, and adjudged by the queen for prosecution, on the charge of having received, annually, sums of money from the army contractors. But the effects of the favourite's ascendancy over the queen extended further than England: all Europe was affected by it. The war of the succession in Spain, which had cost the nation so dear, was abruptly terminated, under circumstances which reflect little honour on the government; and the house of Bourbon was left in quiet possession of the Spanish throne.

8. *Affairs of Scotland under Anne.*—In 1704, the Scottish parliament, impatient of English influence, and irritated by the disappointment of their commercial project (§ 4), refused to grant supplies, unless connected with the *Act of Security*—a measure to which the royal assent had been refused in the former session. This act provided, that, in case of the queen's dying without issue, the states should immediately meet and name a successor to the crown, who should be a Protestant; that this successor should not be the same person who should possess the crown of England, unless during her majesty's reign a settlement should be made in parliament of the rights and

liberties of the nation, independent of English councils; and that the prerogative of declaring peace and war should be subjected for ever to the approbation of parliament. It appeared now to be a favourable opportunity for uniting the kingdoms of England and Scotland, under the name of Great Britain, to be represented in one and the same parliament, and for repealing all existing laws which might be prejudicial to the interest of either country. After several discussions between the commissioners of the two kingdoms, the incorporation came into effect, on the 1st of May, 1707. The celebrated *Act of Union* provided, that the succession to the throne of the United Kingdom be vested in the Princess Sophia and her heirs, being Protestants; that all subjects of Great Britain enjoy equal privileges of trade; that the coin be the same; that the courts of judicature in Scotland retain their authority and privileges; that Scotland be represented in the parliament of Great Britain by sixteen peers, to be elected for every parliament by the whole body, and forty-five commoners, two-thirds of whom to be chosen by the counties, and one-third by the boroughs; that the peers of Scotland be peers of Great Britain, and rank immediately after the English peers created before the union, but before all peers of Great Britain who might be created after the union; and that the Episcopal and Presbyterian forms of religious government be established for ever for England and Scotland respectively, as an essential part of the union. This act was for a long time offensive to many of the Scots: the Jacobites saw their hopes of the succession annihilated; the whigs apprehended the worst results to their trade and religion, from the influence of the more powerful portion of the legislature. Indeed, the worst consequences were anticipated on both sides; and perhaps it is among the best proofs of improvement in the principles of government, that those anticipations have not been realized.

9. *Projected Invasion of the Pretender.*—In 1707 the kingdom was threatened by an invasion from France. Charles Edward, Chevalier de St. George, commonly called the Pretender, son of James II., encouraged by the Jacobite party in Scotland, by the powerful aid of Louis, and by contributions from the pope, meditated an invasion of England. The ostensible object of the French king was to place the chevalier on the forfeited throne of his father: his real aim was to create a revolt in Great Britain, and thus prevent the queen from sending troops against his own army in Flanders. A squadron was assembled at Dunkirk, with the intention of sailing for Inverness. But the British government was apprized of the project: the oath of abjuration was tendered to all persons; the *Habeas Corpus* Act was suspended; the pretended Prince of Wales and his partisans were proclaimed traitors and rebels; while Sir George Byng was prepared with a squadron to meet the enemy on the coast of Scotland. The French armament arrived; but being prevented

by a north wind from landing at Inverness, returned to Dunkirk. In 1713 alarm was again excited by reports of a threatened invasion. The declining health of Anne awakened the hopes of the Stuart party. The whigs had been removed from all civil and military employments, and their places occupied by the tories: many of whom were attached to the fallen dynasty. The intentions of the queen herself were not unsuspected: her dislike to the house of Hanover, and her subjection to the will of the tories, naturally produced anxiety among the supporters of the constitution respecting the Protestant succession. The parliament presented a series of factious struggles: the tories spoke of the house of Hanover with contempt and aversion; the whigs accused their opponents of favouring the Pretender and furnishing supplies to his partisans in Scotland. The queen assured both parties that there was no ground for alarm, yet refused to invite the electoral prince of Hanover, heir to the throne of Great Britain, to come and reside in the kingdom. The Jacobites were the more zealous, as the queen's health became more precarious. Eventually a proclamation was published, offering a reward of £5,000 to any person who should apprehend the Pretender, on his landing in Great Britain. A penalty of high-treason was also decreed against all who should enlist in the Pretender's service.

10. *Struggle between Whigs and Tories.*—The reign of Anne was imbittered by the incessant struggles of these contending parties. The Whigs had supported William and the principles of the constitution; Anne evinced at an early period an attachment to the tories. The Duchess of Marlborough had ruled her feeble mistress with a rod of iron: she fell, and another favourite was adopted. By the wiles of the latter, the tories acceded to office, and Marlborough's successes were impeded. In 1708 the tories were, in their turn, removed from power by the new favourite's abuse of her ascendancy. The fortunes of Europe were at this time actually controlled by the contemptible intrigues of two waiting-women. "The house of Bourbon," says Mr Hallam, "would probably not have reigned beyond the Pyrenees, but for Sarah and Abigail at Queen Anne's toilet." In 1709 a fresh opportunity arose for a trial of strength between the whigs and tories. Dr Sacheverel, rector of St. Saviour's in Southwark, was impeached at the bar of the Upper House, for preaching against the principles of the Revolution. The trial lasted for three weeks, during which period all other business was suspended. At last Sacheverel was found guilty, prohibited from preaching for three years, and his sermons burned by the common hangman. This lenient sentence was considered a triumph by the tories, who celebrated their victory by bonfires and illuminations, and treated the idol of their faction with all the pomp and circumstance of royalty itself. A popular clamour was excited, and employed as a powerful means for the ejection of the whig administration. The tories returned to power, and continued in power during

the remainder of the present reign—a period characterized not only by continued contests with their political opponents, but by mutual animosity among themselves.*

11. *Accession of the House of Hanover.*—The settlement of the crown at the period of the Revolution was extended only to the descendants of William and of Anne. The birth of a son to the latter seemed to preclude the necessity for making further provision for the succession. But the premature death, in 1700, of the Duke of Gloucester, the only remaining child of seventeen which Anne had borne, rendered it necessary, for the preservation of peace and the security of the Protestant religion, that a further declaration should be made of the limitation and succession of the crown in the Protestant line. William had always been desirous that the Princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., and wife of Ernest Augustus, elector of Hanover, and her posterity, should be nominated in the Act of Succession as the next Protestant heirs. It has also been supposed that Anne and her ministers would not have objected to set aside the Act of Succession in favour of the restoration of the Stuart line. The sudden death of the queen, however, on the 1st of August, 1714, prevented any measure being adopted for that purpose. The selection of the house of Hanover, to the exclusion of the more direct hereditary title of other claimants, affords a fresh proof that the allegiance of the nation to its chief magistrate depended at this time upon the sovereignty of the legislature, and not on any theory of unprescriptible right. Previously to the new Act of Settlement, it was determined that further provision should be made for the security of the rights and liberty of the subject. It was provided,—1. That all future kings join in communion with the established religion of the country. 2. That, in case of a foreigner acceding to the throne, the nation be not obliged to engage in any war for the defence of any foreign dominions, without consent of parliament. 3. That no king hereafter go out of the dominions of Great Britain or Ireland, without consent of parliament. 4. That all matters of government which are *properly cognizable* in the privy council by the laws and customs of the realm transacted there, and all resolutions taken thereupon, be signed by the consentient members of

* *Revenue and Finance.*—The greater part of the reign of Anne was a period of war; and as extraordinary efforts were required, the revenue was only equal to about one-half of the annual expenditure, the remainder being raised by loans, as in the previous reign. The following are the sources from which the sums expended were received, which show an annual expenditure, during her reign of twelve years and four months, of about ten millions a-year.

Customs,	£15,113,811
Excise,	20,859,311
Landtax,	21,285,969
Miscellaneous taxes and receipts,	5,261,386
	<hr/>
	£62,520,377
Loans,	50,833,154
	<hr/>
	£113,353,531

council. 5. That no foreigner, unless born of English parents, be capable to be of the privy council; or a member of either house of parliament; or enjoy any office or place of trust, civil or military; or have any grant of lands, &c., from the crown, himself or trustees. 6. That no government officer or pensioner be capable of serving as a member of the House of Commons. 7. That judges' commissions be made *quamdiu bene gesserint*, and their salaries ascertained and established; that they be removable upon the address of both houses of parliament. And, 8. That no pardon under the great seal of Great Britain be pleaded to an impeachment by the Commons in parliament. Of these limitations, the first two were suggested by the jealousy entertained of an untried and foreign line. The third was repealed soon after the accession of George I., by the influence of parliament to his frequent visits to his electorate in Hanover. The fourth related to the encroachment which had been made by the cabinet upon the functions of the privy council, and the irresponsibility which attached to the former: it was, however, repealed in the reign of Anne. The fifth was a precautionary measure against the influence of foreigners under a foreign dynasty. The sixth was directed against the influence of the crown. It is true that a large sum was annually devoted to a very justly suspected item of secret-service money, and the offices in which it had been employed had not always remained pure: besides this, in 1693, the king had refused his assent to a bill which had passed both houses, and which had for its object the regulation of and impartial proceedings in parliament. It was found, however, that so absolute an exclusion was impracticable; and the final article was repealed in 1706; when it was provided, first, that every member of the House of Commons accepting an office from the crown, except a higher commission in the army, shall forfeit his seat, and a new writ shall issue; and, secondly, that no person holding an office created since the 25th Oct., 1705, shall be capable of being elected or re-elected at all. The eighth article, in making the judges' commissions during life or for good behaviour, placed it out of the power of the crown to displace them at its own discretion; while it referred the controlling power over the bench to the vigilance of the legislature. The article limited the dispensing power of the crown—a prerogative liable to the extreme abuse of subverting the very principle of legal enactments.

2. *State of Parties under George I.*—On the death of Anne, August 1, 1714, George I., elector of Hanover, ascended the throne of Great Britain, according to the Act of Settlement at the Revolution, and the act for the ascendancy of the Protestant religion, without opposition or popular commotion. The hopes of the Jacobite party, which had been fed by the duplicity of some of the ministers during the late reign, were now for ever quenched. The Tories were generally excluded from the royal

favour, and their places occupied by the whigs. The consequences of this sudden change were soon manifested by a general disaffection throughout the kingdom: tumults were raised in some of the principal towns; the clergy declared that the established religion was in danger; while the Pretender, taking advantage of these dissensions, landed in Scotland, where he was proclaimed as James III. by the Earl of Mar. But Louis XIV. died at this time; and the regent of France, pursuing a different policy, united himself with England. The rebels, feebly supported, were defeated at Dunblane; James re-crossed the sea; the Earls of Mar and Derwentwater were executed, together with thirty other persons taken with arms in open insurrection. Meanwhile, the whigs were wreaking vengeance on their political opponents: the tory ministers of the late sovereign were impeached; Lord Oxford was committed to the Tower, where he languished for two years; after which, in consequence of divisions among the ministers and a change in the administration, he was acquitted; Lord Bolingbroke and the Duke of Ormond secured themselves by flight. At this period, the ministers, alarmed at the prospect of a new parliament during the prevalent disaffection of the kingdom, procured the repeal of the *Triennial Act*, and caused a law to be passed, extending the term of the existing and all future parliaments to seven years. This measure occasioned considerable alarm; for it was impossible to foresee how far the duration might, at any period, be protracted. Many attempts have accordingly been made to return to triennial parliaments; but, to the present day, without success. The attachment of George to the whigs procured for him the opprobrious charge of governing by a faction. To this censure it is sufficient to reply, that the principles upon which the Hanoverian line acceded to the throne of England, were those of the whigs; that the state of parties, during the time of Anne, was by no means conducive to the stability of the reigning family; and that if, by the term "faction," it was intended to convey a particular reproach, the term was fully as applicable to the one party as to the other.

13. *Connection of England with the Affairs of the Continent.*—The union of the electorate of Hanover with the crown of England involved the latter country in affairs which were foreign to her true interests. The compliant aristocracy, acting through the medium of the parliament, not only cancelled the restriction by which the king's presence was limited to his British dominions, but actually permitted him to add to his continental possessions by purchase with English money, and furnished him with supplies for the maintenance of his German dependencies. The first two Hanoverian princes who ascended the throne of England, appeared, in fact, to hold the interests of this country subordinate to those of their continental dominions; and to this circumstance, connected with others relating to the foreign habits of

these sovereigns, are to be attributed the growing disaffection of the people towards them, and the dangers to which the country itself was exposed; it was observed in the House of Commons, that it was a great misfortune that the king was as little acquainted with the parliamentary proceedings as with the language of the country. In 1716, a storm was gathering from the quarter of Sweden. Charles XII., exasperated at the purchase, by the elector of Hanover, of the dutchies of Bremen and Verden, which were parts of his dominions, was preparing an invasion of Great Britain, with the view of placing the Pretender on the throne. A defensive alliance was concluded between George I., the regent of France, and the pensionary Heinsius for Holland. The people of England murmured at the unnecessary umbrage thus given to Spain, with which power the nation had formed important commercial connections; and they argued, that, on pretence of an invasion, an opportunity might be thus afforded for introducing foreign troops to enslave the nation. But the House of Commons did not represent the people, and the salutary murmur was disregarded. A bill was passed, by which all mercantile relations with Sweden were prohibited, to the great injury of the British merchants; and extraordinary supplies were voted, in an unparliamentary manner, for the prosecution of the king's project. The impartial historian must lament that the interests and liberties of a great country were at this period swayed by the overwhelming influence of a haughty aristocracy, which permitted the sovereign to prosecute his foreign schemes at a reckless expenditure, so long as it could avail itself of this and other means to enlarge and consolidate its own power at home. It matters little which faction was dominant at any particular moment of this period: the results were generally alike. Happily for the peace of Great Britain, Charles XII. was killed before the commencement of the projected invasion, and the disputed dutchies were secured to the house of Hanover.

14. The foregoing events were only the first-fruits of the unfortunate connection of Britain with the affairs of the continent—the first link in the chain of political associations, by which a nation, labouring under the burdens of increasing debt and taxation, was dragged by its rulers into the arena of foreign struggles, without any prospect of military glory, but with the certainty of commercial and financial distress. In 1718, George I. and the regent of France became parties to the *Quadruple Alliance*, by which England was involved in immediate difficulties with Spain, the result of which was the destruction of the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro by Sir John Byng, antecedently to a declaration of war. There were not wanting men in the British parliament to arraign these proceedings, when the question of supplies was brought forward: Walpole affirmed that they were *contrary to the law of nations*, and a breach of the most solemn

treaties. Notwithstanding every argument and objection, the parliament, with its usual obsequiousness, granted 13,500 sailors, and 12,435 men for land-service: the whole estimate amounted to upwards of two millions and a quarter, the money being raised by a land tax, malt tax, and lottery. War was formally declared against Spain, and prosecuted in the Mediterranean, until Spain was exhausted, and Philip obliged to accede to the quadruple alliance.—Again, in 1720, George I. concluded an alliance with the queen of Sweden, and engaged to send a fleet into the Baltic, to act against the czar of Muscovy. In the following year, he requested the House of Commons to grant a subsidy of £72,000 to the queen of Sweden, in fulfilment of an engagement he had made with her. Upon this, it was asserted in the House, that we were become the allies of the whole world, and the bubble of all our allies, for we were obliged to pay them for our assistance; that the treaties we had made with Sweden were inconsistent and contradictory; that we reaped little or no advantage by our trade to the Baltic, beyond that of procuring naval stores; and that these articles might be supplied at a much cheaper rate from some of our plantations in America. Yet the Swedish subsidy was granted; and, as if to test the complaisance of parliament to the utmost, in about three weeks a further request was made that the sum of £550,000 should be raised upon the revenue, to meet the debts by which the civil list was encumbered; and that this sum should be re-embursed by a deduction from the salaries and wages of all officers, as well as from the pensions and other payments from the crown. In 1721, the navy-debt, contracted by sending fleets to the Mediterranean and the Baltic to support the interests of Germany, had amounted to nearly two millions, and occasioned much dissatisfaction in parliament; but the ministry had secured a strong majority, and every motion for inquiry was rejected. In 1725, George I., being apprehensive for the security of his German dominions, concluded, at Hanover, an alliance for fifteen years with France and Prussia, by which each of the contracting parties obtained a guarantee of their several possessions. “One sees, at first sight,” says Smollett, “that the interests of Germany dictated the treaty of Hanover; but, in order to secure the approbation of Great Britain, upon which the support of this alliance chiefly depended, it was judged necessary to insert the articles relating to commerce and the Protestant religion, as if the engagement had been contracted purely for the advantage and glory of England. In a word, the ministry began now to ring the changes upon a few words that have been repeated ever since, like cabalistical sounds, by which the nation has been enchanted into a very dangerous connection with the concerns of the continent. They harangued, they insisted upon the machinations of the disaffected, the designs of a popish pretender, the Protestant interest, and the balance of power, until these expres-

K.

sions became absolutely terms of ridicule with every person of common sense and reflection." In vain was it urged that the treaty of Hanover would engage the British nation in a war for the maintenance of the king's German dominions, contrary to the express provision made in the Act of Limitation. The ministers had triumphed too often to fear defeat: the alliance was approved, and a promise made to support his majesty against every attempt which should be made upon his territories, though unconnected, in every point of view, with the interests of Great Britain.

15. *Last Session of Convocation.*—At the period of the Revolution, the authority of convocations had almost dwindled away. They were originally assembled by Edward I., for the sake of obtaining subsidies from the clerical body. They met in each province, in two houses; the upper house consisting of the suffragan bishops; the lower, of the deans, archdeacons, and representatives of the inferior clergy. In 1664, the power of self-taxation was withdrawn from them; and the privilege of enacting canons had been virtually abolished in the reign of Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and Charles II. In the reign of William III., a distinction arose of high and low churchmen, the former being characterized by great pretensions to sacerdotal power, and by tory politics; the latter, by the new principles of toleration. In this reign, and in that of Anne, the high-church party endeavoured to re-animate the convocation, and erect it into an ecclesiastical tribunal; but their assemblies only served to verify the remark of Clarendon, that, "of all mankind, none form so bad an estimate of human affairs as churchmen." In 1717, the proceedings of convocation were directed to an attack upon Hoadley, bishop of Bangor, for asserting the principles of religious toleration. A tedious paper warfare ensued, in which Dr Snape and Dr Sherlock, the king's chaplains, took a leading part: the matter was, however, terminated by the removal of the chaplains by the king, and the prorogation of the assembly by the government. From that period the convocation has never met for the transaction of business: the custom now is, to prorogue the meeting immediately after it has been convoked.

16. *South-Sea Act.*—The year 1720 is memorable in the annals of British finance for the passing of the South-Sea Act. A company was established by Sir John Blount, nominally for the purpose of trading in the South Seas and on the north-west coast of America, but in reality for the purpose of relieving the government from its financial difficulties. The national debt, amounting at this time to upwards of fifty millions, was comprehended under the two heads of redeemable and irredeemable encumbrances. The company was authorized, under the provisions of the act, to take in, either by subscription or purchase, the whole of the debt, and was empowered to raise the sum required by calls upon the existing proprietors, by receiving subscriptions for new stock, by

granting annuities, or by the issue of bonds or debentures. A report was circulated that Gibraltar and Port-Mahon would be exchanged by the Spaniards for some rich places in Peru, which would greatly increase the South-Sea trade, and enlarge the profits of the shareholders. By this artifice, the price of the stock was raised to ten times its original value. The whole nation was deceived, and absorbed in the mania for stock-jobbing. But in a short time the bubble burst: the price rapidly fell; thousands were ruined; and public credit sustained a severe blow. It appeared, from inquiries instituted by parliament, that several members of the administration and of the House of Commons had shared in this nefarious traffic. Aislabie, chancellor of the exchequer, was expelled from parliament for his disgraceful conduct in the affair. The Earl of Sunderland, first commissioner of the treasury, was severely censured by a large minority of the Commons; and, though acquitted by the combined efforts of the ministry, resigned his office, which was conferred upon Sir Robert Walpole. Under the direction of this minister, the popular ferment subsided, and public credit was re-established.*

17. *State of Parties at the Accession of George II.*—George II. succeeded to the throne, June 11, 1727, and pursued a similar policy to that of his father. His Hanoverian possessions were the object of his principal attention, while the affairs of Great Britain were mainly conducted by the aristocracy at home. The house of Brunswick being now established on the throne, a change took place in the relative position of parties. At the head of the ministry was Sir Robert Walpole, an avowed whig, attached to the principles of the Revolution, and enjoying the confidence of the reigning family. But so overwhelming was his love of power, that he would not endure a rival; and so absolute his control, by means of a system of corruption which would at all times secure a majority in parliament, that some of his ablest supporters were converted into his bitterest opponents; and an opposition was created out of the whig party, by which he was eventually overthrown. Pulteney and Carteret abandoned their colleague, and joined the opposition; Townshend retired into private life; Chesterfield and a crowd of nobles were dismissed from their offices; and Walpole was obliged to encounter an opposition containing the most accomplished statesmen of the day, headed

* The public revenue, on the average of the four years preceding the death of George I., was £8,762,643; but the average annual expenditure, during his reign of nearly eleven years, was nearly eight millions. The following are the sources from which the total amount was received:—

Customs,	£21,632,965
Excise,	30,421,451
Stamps,	1,075,600
Land tax,	18,470,082
Miscellaneous,	4,900,000
	<hr/>
Loans,	£77,000,000
	2,632,003
	<hr/>
	£79,632,100

the Prince of Wales, and reenforced by the powerful aid of Pelton and Pitt. At this juncture were arrayed on one side discontented whigs, professing, under the name of *patriots*, the country party, the purest doctrines of the Revolution, mixed with high-church tories and uncompromising Jacobites; the other, the court party, under the supreme direction of a man who boasted of having in his purse a majority of parliament, and a tariff of consciences. It appeared, indeed, that the liberties of the nation, which in former times had been endangered by rogues, were now more safely prostrated by venality and corruption. The power of the minister was unbounded. Although the debt of the nation now exceeded fifty millions, he decided that the sum allowed for the civil list should be increased £800,000: a standing army of 18,000 men was maintained in a time when all Europe was at peace: a bill for impressment of seamen was carried in defiance of Pitt, who declared it was a direct attack on the liberty of the subject, and a great step towards despotism.

Indeed, so arbitrary were the measures of this minister, that, towards the close of his career, he was considered to have deserted the whig principles of the Revolution, to have engrossed administration by indirect means, and to have depended for support upon a military power, by which the people were overruled, and consequently enslaved. In 1741, Walpole retired from office, and was created Earl of Oxford. It was then discovered, by a committee appointed to inquire into his conduct during the ten years of his administration, that he had secured to himself nearly a million and a-half of the public money; that he had expended £50,000 on authors and newspaper writers, for the success of his measures; and that, on the morning previous to his resignation, he had signed orders on the treasury for £30,000.

3. *Finance*.—The sources from which the supplies were drawn to meet the enormous expenses incurred during this period, deserve attention, as illustrating the gradual departure from the principle of direct to that of indirect taxation; the influence of the aristocracy, in transferring the burdens of the nation, in great measure, from the landed proprietary to a large mass of the unrepresented community. The expense of the year 1727, amounting to four millions, was defrayed by a land tax of three shillings in the pound, a malt tax, and a loan from the bank, for which annuities were granted to that corporation, to be raised by duties on coals imported into the city of London. It was urged, to no purpose, that the duty on coal imported into London affected the trade of that city only, and that the inequality of the burden was a great discouragement to manufactures, and a hardship upon all the trading inhabitants of the city. Some incidents of this and the following year demonstrate the irresponsibility assumed by the dominant party. A petition was addressed to the king, requesting a particular account of the distribution of £250,000, which had been placed to

the general charge for securing trade, navigation, and the permanence of the peace of Europe. A general answer was returned, that the money had been applied to secret services : a particular account was refused. On another occasion, the sum of £300,000, arising from a certain duty, was omitted in the accounts of the national debts. After some severe reflections upon the superintendents of the public accounts, the error was corrected. In 1731, Walpole reduced the land tax, usual at four shillings, to one shilling in the pound, and restored the duties on salt. In vain it was urged that this tax particularly affected the poor, who could not afford to eat fresh provisions; that it introduced innumerable frauds and perjuries in various articles of traffic; that it was, in effect, a step towards a general excise; and that there was no good reason for resolving to grind the faces of the poor, in order to ease a few rich men of the landed interest. In 1732, Walpole introduced a bill for an excise upon tobacco; but the measure was so unpopular, that the parliament-house was beset by multitudes, and the life of the minister was endangered: the project was therefore abandoned. In 1735, a duty of twenty shillings a gallon was imposed on spiritous liquors; and it was further enacted, that no person should be permitted to sell such liquors without a license from the government, the cost of which should be fifty pounds annually. Petitions were presented by the merchants connected with the sugar colonies, requesting a relaxation of the duty in the article of rum: a clause was consequently inserted, in favour of the beverage known by the name of punch. In 1739, when preparations were making for a war with Spain, and extraordinary expenses were incurred, the land tax was again raised to four shillings in the pound, at which it continued for several years. In 1746, the connection of England with the affairs of the continent, and the subsidies granted to foreign potentates, involved the country in expenses amounting to nearly $9\frac{1}{2}$ millions. This sum was raised by the usual taxes; to which were added new imposts on windows, carriages, and spiritous liquors, a lottery, and a loan from the sinking fund. In the following year a similar sum was raised, principally on a loan by subscription, chargeable on a new subsidy of poundage exacted from all merchandise imported into Great Britain. By these increasing demands, the national debt had accumulated, at the conclusion of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, to the enormous sum of eighty millions sterling. In 1749, Mr Pelham brought in a bill for reducing the interest of the debt from four to three per cent., offering to pay the capital to those stockholders who declined to subscribe to the reduction: the measure was passed without much opposition, and the debt was proportionably lightened. In 1758, the taxes incurred by providing for the sea and land service, by foreign subsidies, and domestic expenses, amounted to $10\frac{1}{2}$ millions. Besides the usual taxes, a duty of 5 per cent. was laid upon all salaries and pensions of

public officers who received more than £100 a-year: a tax of a shilling was laid upon every dwelling-house, and sixpence upon every window exceeding fifteen. The debt was now increased to 87 millions. In the following year the expenses amounted to upwards of 15½ millions, and the debt rose to nearly 108½ millions sterling.*

Dispute with Spain.—In 1737 the attention of the British Parliament was called to the depredations committed by the Spaniards in America on the English merchant vessels and their crews: under the pretext of searching for contraband goods, ships had been boarded and plundered, and sailors imprisoned. The merchants of England complained of the injury done to their commerce: the nation at large called for vengeance. But Walpole was unwilling that the means by which his domestic system was supported should be devoted to military purposes: he feared also that an open rupture with Spain would lead to a war with France, both of these countries being at that time under the rule of the Bourbon dynasty. Negotiations were instituted; but Spain failed in her engagements: letters of marque and reprisal were, consequently, granted against the Spaniards, and Admiral Vernon sent to America to surprise Porto Bello. At this period took place the famous expedition of Anson, who passed the Straits of Magellan, disturbed the Spanish possessions in the South Sea, captured a galleon, and returned to England laden with booty, after having sailed round the world in the space of three years and nine months. The death of the emperor, Charles XII., which occurred in 1745, involved Europe in a war, in which England took part; and from this time the dispute with Spain merged into a continental contest, which was terminated in 1748 by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. This subject forms part of a following section.

20. *Invasion of Great Britain by Charles Edward.*—The Jacobites in England had not yet given up their favourite project of restoring the Stuart family to the throne. Encouraged by their promises of assistance, and by the increasing disaffection of the people to the ruling sovereign, Charles Edward, son of the Pretender, landed in Scotland in 1745; and having collected

* Sir John Sinclair speaks of a prevalent opinion, that during the reign of George II. the court was fully impressed with the idea that nothing could curb the turbulent spirit of the English, or prevent another revolution, but engaging them in perpetual wars, and loading them with increased taxation. In the year 1759, preceding the death of George II., the revenue produced the following sums:—

Customs,	£1,985,376
Excise, including malt,	3,887,349
Stamps,	263,207
Incidents,	650,000
Land tax,	1,737,608
Total,	£8,523,540

But the total sum levied by taxes, during his reign of thirty-nine years, amounted to £217,217,301

By loans, 59,132,412

Total, £276,349,713

about 1200 men, commenced hostilities. A reward of £30,000 was offered to any one who should apprehend the adventurer, and a similar price was set by him upon the head of the elector of Hanover. Meanwhile Charles proclaimed his father, the Chevalier de St. George, king of Great Britain, in Perth, Dundee, and other places. He then secured Edinburgh, and took possession of Holyrood-house, where a manifesto was read, declaring him regent of his father's dominions. Four thousand English, under Sir John Cope, advanced upon Edinburgh, and were completely defeated by Charles, with three thousand Highlanders, at Prestonpans. Thus encouraged, Charles entered England, took Carlisle, proceeded through Lancaster and Preston to Manchester, where he established his head-quarters, and finally advanced to the town of Derby. It has been supposed that, had he proceeded with expedition, he might have made himself master of London. But he was miserably deceived in his hopes of raising an army of followers: few joined his standard, and he was obliged to retreat to Scotland before the Duke of Cumberland and a royal army. Twice were the regular troops defeated at Falkirk by the rebels, who now determined to come to a decisive action at Culloden. There they were entirely defeated, and Charles was obliged to save himself by flight. For five months the unhappy fugitive wandered about in disguise, exposed to every privation and hardship. At length he escaped in a vessel, and arrived in safety at Bretagne. But the humiliation of this misguided youth was not yet complete. It was stipulated, among the articles of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, that neither the Pretender nor any of his descendants should be allowed to reside in the territories belonging to any of the parties of that treaty. It fell to the lot of France to enforce the terms of the treaty. Charles Edward refused to leave Paris, and was in consequence arrested. Upon this, he yielded, and repaired to Avignon, where he was honourably received by the pope's legate.

21. *Hostilities in America.*—The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) was of short duration. Hostilities had not been suspended in America. To such a degree of importance had the commercial and colonial interests now risen, that remote wastes and islands became the occasion of a war, which spread over all quarters of the world. The want of geographical certainty in the transatlantic colonies was now displayed in all its unhappy consequences. Disputes had frequently arisen between the English and the French respecting the limits of Nova Scotia. This country, termed by the French Acadia, was adjudged to England by the treaty of Utrecht (1713), and the cession was confirmed at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; but the want of precision in limiting the boundary was one of the causes of the present misunderstanding between the two nations, for England connected New Brunswick with the disputed territory. Disputes arose at the same time in consequence of the erection of forts, by the French, along the

Ohio, in order to connect Louisiana and Canada, this was resented by the English, who had already established forts in those parts. Another contested point was the occupation, by the French, of the islands of the Antilles, Tobago, St. Vincent, Dominique, and St. Lucia, which had been declared neutral by former agreements. The causes of animosity at this time were, however, not confined to the colonies of America—the rivalry of the two nations, which affected to dictate the laws of civilization to the world, was producing its disastrous consequences in the East Indies; while the connection of England with Prussia, during the seven years' war, involved her in all the military and revolutionary projects of the continental states. Thus the American and the European wars were resolved into one; but, before their termination, they were separated, and concluded by distinct treaties of peace. The events of the former, being more exclusively an English war, are here enumerated: the latter will be noticed in a subsequent section.

22. In 1748, a project was formed of planting a British colony in Nova Scotia: a bounty of fifty acres of land was granted to every private soldier or seaman disposed to emigrate: 4000 adventurers embarked in this scheme, and founded the town of Halifax, so named in honour of the nobleman who had taken the greatest share in the enterprise. The settlers were, however, much annoyed by the incursions of the Indians, who were instigated by the French. Hostilities were commenced in 1754–5, by the mutual seizure of forts and of vessels; but in America, as well as in every part of the world, the war broke out with events disastrous to England. Among the most humiliating of these was the loss of Minorca, in 1756, under the very eyes of Admiral Byng, who had been despatched from Gibraltar to relieve Port-Mahon, and who returned without offering any resistance to the French squadron, which was greatly superior to his own. At this momentous crisis, the administration of England, which had for some time been distracted by cabals, was ruled by Pitt, who was made secretary of state, with the supreme direction of the war and of foreign affairs. A series of brilliant victories ensued. In July, 1758, Louisburg fell; the whole island of Cape Breton was reduced; and the French fleet, to which the defence of North America had been intrusted, was destroyed. In the following year fell Guadaloupe, then Ticonderoga, then Niagara; the French squadron which had taken Minorca was completely defeated by Boscawen, off Cape Lagos; but the crowning of the year was the fall of Quebec, under General Wolfe. In the year 1760, the superiority of British valour was evinced by fresh triumphs: Montreal was taken, and the whole of Canada wrested from the French. At this period, England had reached the height of her ambition; and the great commoner, whose councils had placed her in that position, had attracted the admiration of all Europe. George II. died on the 25th October, 1760; but

his minister lived to witness a revolution, by which the aspect of affairs in England was completely changed.

23. *Innovations during the last two Reigns.*—The period of forty-six years, during which the throne of England was occupied by the first two Georges, was marked by several important changes in the constitution, as might be expected from the accession of two princes who were foreign in their birth, language, and prejudices, and little capable of judging, from the experience gathered from a contracted continental principality, of the capabilities and resources of such a nation as Great Britain. The comparative indifference evinced by George I. to his adopted country, and the general subordination of the interests of this country to those of their native electorate, by both himself and his successor, embarrassed the affairs of England, by the promotion of German schemes and alliances, to an extent which could never have been tolerated, if the voice of an indignant people had been duly heard in the councils of the nation. Subsidy after subsidy was voted away—to Sweden—to the queen of Hungary—to the king of Sardinia—to the German principalities, for some ever-new continental project; while the amount of public debt increased, and the burden of interest thereon weighed heavily upon the industry of the people; while new duties on consumption, awakening discontent, disaffection, and riot, were cramping the elastic energies of an ardent commercial population; and while the ruling family was from time to time fearfully reminded that the representatives of their predecessors on the throne, though exiled, were not extinct. But the tale is easily told; it is but to glance at the actors in the political drama, to enable even the superficial observer to unravel the plot: a sovereign with foreign prepossessions, an absolute minister with a venal parliament, an opposition whose views extended no further than to a change of hands—these were the parties which entangled England in the web of foreign politics and war. At the close of this period, it is true, the naval superiority of Great Britain was established, her commerce flourishing; but to attribute these results to the operations above enumerated, were just as logical as to assert that the heavily-laden vessel, which stems the current and enters the port, is benefited in her perilous passage by the weight of her cargo.

24. The principal change effected in the constitution, during the preceding period, was the *permanence of a standing army*. The practice of maintaining a military force was unknown in this country before the time of the civil war: the guards in the reign of Charles II. amounted to about 5,000 men; and, in the short interval between the peace of Ryswick and the war of the Spanish succession, the standing force did not exceed 7,000 troops. So jealous were the Commons of this privilege in the reign of William III., that they hesitated not to disable the king from maintaining his Dutch-guards—an offence for which he threat-

ened to abandon the government. But from the early part of the reign of George I., and during the entire reign of his successor, a vote was annually demanded of about 17,000 troops. In vain did the patriots urge, in 1732, that a standing army is a body of men distinct from the body of the people, governed by different laws, and blindly subject to the orders of their commanding officer; that the surrounding nations were enslaved by those very means; and that it is impossible for the liberties of a people to be preserved in any country where a numerous standing army is maintained. These arguments were employed by the opposition; but the same persons, when in power, advocated and carried the very measures which they had formerly condemned. It was maintained by the dominant party, on behalf of the king, that a regular army was necessary for maintaining the balance of power abroad; and there can be little doubt that the disaffection of the kingdom, arising from numerous acts of its rulers, suggested to the government the convenience of such a display. But the jealousy which existed against the innovation occasionally broke out into an overt act; for such must be considered the establishment of a national *militia*, which was adopted in 1757, though against the wishes of the government. By this act it was provided, that 32,340 militia-men, being one-half of the number originally proposed by the Commons, should be raised for the whole kingdom of England and Wales.

25. Another remarkable feature of the present period was the *subservience of parliament to the administration*. It signified little of what materials the administration was composed: the whigs of the Reformation, the tory or motley government of Anne, the whigs under Walpole, the opposition or patriot whigs who succeeded him—all were enabled to command majorities in parliament, by means of offices, pensions, or more clandestine corruption. A large sum was set aside annually, under the head of *secret-service money*, the disposal of which was not explained: it was, however, generally supposed, and sometimes proved, to be distributed among the members of both houses. The provisions in the Act of Settlement, by which placemen and pensioners were excluded from parliament, were found to be insufficient to prevent the influx of the dependants on power into the House of Commons: new offices were continually created, with extravagant salaries; the power of the crown to grant pensions knew no limits but the discretion of the minister, and the necessities of the civil list. To such an extent was the influence of the court exerted in the time of William, that a bill was introduced in 1692, touching free and impartial proceedings in parliament. This was intended to prevent all members of parliament from holding places of trust and profit, and was particularly levelled against the officers of the army and navy, who had insinuated themselves into the house in such numbers, that this was commonly called the officers'

In 1701, the deputy lieutenants, above twenty justices of the peace, the grand jury, and freeholders of the county of Kent, presented a petition to the House of Commons, remonstrating with them for not giving effect to the measures of the king, and requesting them to turn their loyal addresses into bills of supply, in order that his majesty might be enabled to assist his allies before it should be too late. The house, which was at this time strongly imbued with tory principles, voted the petition scandalous, insolent, and seditious, and ordered the parties who had presented it into custody, where they remained till the prorogation of parliament. This assertion of power, and limitation of the subject's right of petition, gave rise to an extraordinary memorial, which was signed Legion, and sent to the speaker, desiring him, in the name of two hundred thousand Englishmen, to deliver it to the House of Commons. It charged that house with illegal practices, admonished them to act according to their duty, on pain of incurring the resentment of an injured nation, and assured them that Englishmen were no more slaves to parliaments than to kings.—In 1704, a dispute took place between the two houses of parliament respecting the election of members to the lower house. Some burgesses of Aylesbury had sued the returning officers for refusing their votes, and were consequently committed to Newgate by the House of Commons: the prisoners moved for a *habeas corpus* in the king's bench, but the court declined to interfere; and the house proceeded to commit to prison all the lawyers who had been concerned in prosecuting the *habeas corpus* in behalf of the prisoners. An appeal being made to the House of Lords, the judgment was reversed. Upon this, the Commons passed some resolutions, by which they insisted on the sole right of determining elections, and asserted that they were the only judges of the right of voting and of their own privileges, in which the other house could not interfere. To this the Lords replied, that it was the birthright of every Englishman, who considered himself injured, to seek for redress in the courts of justice, and that any control over this right involved a sacrifice of the liberty, and danger to the property of the subject. They then urged the queen to issue a writ of error, upon the refusal of the court to discharge the prisoners: the decision of the question was, however, prevented by the immediate prorogation of the parliament.—In 1713, the privilege of the House of Commons was stretched to an unwarrantable extent against one of its own members: a complaint was made against Sir Richard Steele, for writing a pamphlet called *The Crisis*, which was considered a libel upon the measures of the government. In vain did Walpole assert that the liberty of the press was unrestrained, and that it was incompetent for a part of the legislature to punish that as a crime, which is not declared to be criminal by any law framed by the whole. Steele was expelled from the house.—One more may suffice to show how far the liberty of the subject was

country was in so thriving a condition, as to command a surplus revenue. This the Commons conceived they had an undoubted right to appropriate to national purposes, without the consent of the sovereign. The advocates for prerogative in England were alarmed, and denied the right, not only of appropriation, but even of taking the matter into consideration, without the previous consent of the crown. Violent discussions ensued; and ended in a mutual victory, or it may be termed, a mutual defeat. The crown maintained a semblance of authority, by tacking on to the appropriation-bill its own consent. The Commons so far maintained their opposition, as to reject the bill, with its alterations, altogether. From this period commences the history of the Irish parliament; but it was short-lived, being terminated in a brief half-century by the union with England.

SECTION II.

OF THE EUROPEAN SYSTEM FROM 1700 TO 1740.

1. THIS period of history, when viewed in reference to the leading states of Western Europe, presents none of those changes which were likely to be of a permanent character. Certain principles were in progress of development—in some cases tending to improvement; in others, to decay. An important question, however, respecting the *Spanish Succession*, closely connected with the maintenance of the balance of power in Europe, gave rise to a protracted war, in which the leading states were deeply involved. The suspension of hostilities, by the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt, still left the European powers in a fluctuating condition for several years. The equilibrium was indeed preserved; but the consequences of the war and the treaties were by no means similar for the different states. The ancient rivalry between France and Spain was terminated by the exhaustion of the former, and the accession of the Bourbon line to the throne of the latter. The Netherlands became the property of Austria, on the conclusion of a barrier treaty between this power and the republic; while England was exulting in the victories of Marlborough, and extending her commercial influence by a new system of financial policy. But the intricate events of this period were entirely controlled by a few ministers and their confidants. Never had there been so much diplomacy in Europe; never such importance acquired by cabinet politics.

WAR OF THE SUCCESSION IN SPAIN.

2. The Spanish line of the house of Hapsburg, was likely to become extinct with Charles II.; and three great competitors,

Louis XIV. of France, Leopold I. of Germany, and the elector of Bavaria, laid claim to the entire monarchy. Louis XIV. had married Maria Theresa, the eldest sister of the Spanish king; the succession would, therefore, in the usual course of descent, have fallen to the Dauphin. His right was, however, barred by the solemn renunciation, by his mother, at the period of her marriage, of all hereditary right to the Spanish throne—a renunciation which had been formally confirmed by the cortes. Leopold I., emperor of Germany, and first cousin to Charles, had married Margaret Theresa, a younger sister of the Spanish king: in this case also, all claim to the succession had been renounced; but the renunciation had not received the sanction of the cortes, and was therefore considered invalid. A claim was also set up by the elector of Bavaria, who had married a daughter of Margaret Theresa, in behalf of his son, Joseph Ferdinand, a minor. As a political question, however, the annexation of Spain to France, or to Germany, especially if the two crowns should be united on one head, was considered by the maritime states as fatal to the balance of power in Europe. To prevent this, Louis consented to transfer the claim of the Dauphin to his grandson Philip, Duke of Anjou; while Leopold proposed to waive his own right in favour of the Archduke Charles, his younger son by his last marriage. In Madrid, during the life of the king, the claim of France was powerfully supported by the ambassador Harcourt, and Cardinal Porto Carrero, by whose artifices, the enfeebled and superstitious king, though entirely predisposed himself in favour of the imperial claimant, was completely overruled. But the web of politics was becoming still more complicated by the following manœuvres of France and the maritime powers.

3. *Partition Treaties.*—Soon after the peace of Ryswick, Louis XIV. had determined, in connection with the maritime powers, to settle the question of the Spanish succession, independently of Leopold, and even of Charles himself. Accordingly, in October, 1698, France, England, and Holland, became parties to a treaty of partition, by which Spain itself, with its colonies, was assigned to the Elector, the Milanese to the Emperor, and the two Sicilies to the Dauphin. This treaty was, however, cancelled by the sudden death of the Elector; and a second treaty was concluded in March, 1700, by which the Archduke Charles was to succeed to Spain, with its colonies, and the Netherlands; while France was to have the Milanese, or, if preferred, the province of Lorraine. This project for dismembering a powerful monarchy, under whatever aspect it may be viewed, was not likely to lead to any permanent result. It was bitterly resented at the court of Madrid: the Emperor withheld his consent; while the known character of Louis afforded no guarantee for the fulfilment of the treaty. Of the truth of the last of these statements, a proof was soon exhibited. In November, 1700, the king of Spain expired, having bequeathed the whole of his dominions to Philip

of Anjou; and leaving to Louis the choice between accepting this splendid legacy for his grandson, and observing the treaty of partition. He chose the former alternative; and a Bourbon became Philip V. of Spain.

4. *Grand Alliance.*—Preparations for war were immediately commenced. On the one hand, Louis hastened to fortify the Spanish Netherlands, to secure the aid of Maximilian II., elector of Bavaria, and to strengthen his position in Italy by bribing the Duke of Mantua to his interests. On the other hand, Leopold found allies in the king of Prussia, and in numerous minor powers throughout the whole of the empire. The United Provinces, irritated by the occupation of the Spanish Netherlands by the French, joined themselves to the Emperor; while William III., infuriated by the French king's acknowledgment of the son of James II. as king of England, made vigorous preparations for revenge. Such was the origin of the Grand Alliance, by which England, Holland, and the Empire, were arrayed against France, Spain, and Bavaria; and such the origin of that struggle which, for the period of twelve years, convulsed all the powers of Western Europe. The Alliance, when viewed in reference to the claims of the component parties, could scarcely be considered compact; for, while the maritime powers aimed at a partition of the Spanish dominions, the Emperor affected the whole: its direction, however, by the talents of Marlborough, Eugene, and Heinsius—a triumvirate unexampled in history—afforded a sufficient guarantee for its solidity and efficiency. The theatre of war was not confined to the country which was the original object of dispute; but was extended to Italy, the Netherlands, and Germany. William of England, “the master-workman,” died before the opening of the war; but the system lived in his successor, and a closer connection of all parties was the consequence.

5. In Spain, the war commenced in 1702, between Charles and Philip, and was carried on for several years with varying success, the Archduke being chiefly supported in Catalonia; Philip, in Castile. In 1704, an English fleet under the command of Sir George Rooke, took Gibraltar, which has never since been wrested from the hands of the conquerors. Under the Earl of Peterborough, some brilliant victories were obtained. Even Madrid was for a time occupied by the allied army; but the characteristic mode of Spanish warfare, aided by French reinforcements under Berwick, and afterwards under Vendome, turned the tide of success against the Austrian cause. Finally, the loss of the battle of Almanza, in 1707, decided the question that the struggle for Spain was not to be settled on Spanish soil. Meanwhile, in other quarters, the French armies had suffered a series of defeats, and Louis was reduced to extremities. In Italy, the Duke of Savoy, whom France had gained to her cause by a marriage, deserted to the allies. In Germany, a

decisive victory was gained at Blenheim, in 1704. Two years later, the allies became masters of the Netherlands, after the victory of Marlborough at Ramillies, in 1706. Finally, the evacuation of Lombardy by the French troops in 1707, the conquest of Naples, and the defeat of Louis in 1808, at Oudenarde, in his attempt to recover the Netherlands, induced the French monarch in the following year to negotiate for peace. But among the articles dictated by the allies, was the deposition of Philip of Spain by the hands of his grandfather. To this condition he refused to consent, and the war proceeded. A great battle was fought at Malplaquet, September 11, 1709, in which Marlborough and Eugene defeated the French army under Villars and Boufflers. But, after all, the contest was not to be determined by the sword. Two unexpected events took place, which changed the face of affairs. The Emperor Joseph I. died without leaving any male issue. His brother, the Archduke Charles, acceded to the imperial dignity, and became heir to all the states belonging to the German branch of the house of Austria. It appeared, therefore, that the balance of power could not possibly be preserved by allowing this prince to possess also the whole Spanish monarchy. A change in the English administration at this period, produced also a change in its foreign relations. The whigs were dismissed by Anne, and replaced by tories. With the former party fell Marlborough, while the latter directed their attention to the termination of a war which had been prosecuted at an enormous expense. Preliminaries of peace between France and England were accordingly communicated to the allies, in October, 1711, and the bond which had united them ceased to exist.

6. *Treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt*.—As Holland was still considered the centre of politics, Utrecht was selected as the place for the meeting of the congress. There was little reason to expect unanimity of purpose among the allies, since Austria persisted in her demand of the crown of Spain; while England was contented that Philip should retain his kingdom, provided there should be no union of the crowns of France and Spain on one head. It became necessary, therefore, to conclude a series of treaties, by which each party should separately support its own claims, Austria and the empire being left to themselves. The congress was opened at Utrecht, in 1712; and several treaties were concluded, containing the following principal articles:—1. Peace between France and England; acknowledgment of the Protestant succession in England, in favour of the house of Hanover; expulsion of the Pretender from France; and separation for ever of the crowns of France and Spain. 2. Peace between France and the Netherlands; relinquishment of the Spanish Netherlands to Holland, that she might resign them to Austria on the conclusion of a barrier treaty against France. 3. Peace between France and Savoy, with a claim reserved by the latter

to the crown of Spain, in case of the extinction of the house of Anjou. 4. Peace between Spain and England; the former relinquishing to the latter Gibraltar and the island of Minorca. The emperor, having taken no part in these proceedings, continued to prosecute the war, especially on the Rhine, though with little success. A renewal of negotiations was therefore commenced at Rastadt, in 1714, by which peace was concluded, on the conditions that Austria should take possession of the Spanish Netherlands, after having agreed upon a barrier for Holland; that Austria should retain possession of its Italian territories; and that the empire should be placed in the same condition as it was at the commencement of the war. The result of these treaties, as regarded the principal object of the contest, was the separation from Spain of her European provinces, and the assignment of them to her Austrian rival. But although there was a cessation of hostilities, no formal peace was established between Spain and Austria, since neither of these powers was willing to resign its pretensions. The consequences were, that Europe remained in a fluctuating condition for ten years, and that the consolidation of the peace of Utrecht was a problem of the most difficult solution.

7. Condition of Europe at the Period of the Peace of Utrecht.—

1. In Spain, the accession of the Bourbon dynasty to the throne extinguished the ancient rivalry between that country and France, which had been the scourge of Europe. On the other hand, there was little reason to fear that the balance of power would be disturbed by a combination of these two countries. France was so exhausted by the war, that the closest connection with Spain could excite but little alarm; and, whatever affection Philip might entertain for his patron, it has ever been found in politics that the tie of interest is stronger than that of blood; besides, Louis was now more than seventy years of age; his heir was a weakly infant. It is true that Philip might, in the course of events, have succeeded to the throne of France; but it is by no means clear that he could, in such a case, have retained the crown of Spain.—2. In France, Louis XIV. survived the war but a short time, and his authority died with him. His nephew, Philip of Orleans, obtained the regency during the minority of his great-grandson. The profligate character of the regent, together with the public anxiety respecting the life of the heir, had a considerable influence on the politics of the time, and especially on the relations with the Spanish line. Philip of Spain had, it is true, renounced all claim to the French crown, but his own position had already proved the invalidity of such renunciations; besides, it was not unlikely that he should prefer the crown of his natural to that of his adopted country.—3. The republic of Holland underwent no important internal changes during this period, since the death of William III. Her future policy was that of non-intervention in the contests of the greater powers. The

transmission, however, of the title of Prince of Orange, in 1711, to his cousin, William Friso, and, after his death, to his son William, governor of Friesland and Groningen, gave the Orange family a firm footing in the republic; while the marriage of the prince, in 1734, with Anne, daughter of George II., strengthened the connection of this family with England.—4. The Austrian monarchy had been aggrandized by the possession of the Spanish provinces in Italy and of the Netherlands. But it remained to be proved whether the peace of Utrecht was sufficiently strong to secure the possession of territories which their former master had so reluctantly resigned.—5. To England the results of the peace were of the greatest importance: her flourishing commerce with all parts of the world was, in several essential particulars, founded on its provisions; while, at home, the Protestant succession, desired by the great majority of the nation, was no less confirmed by it.

8. *Quadruple Alliance—Congress of Cambrás.*—The preservation of the peace of Utrecht was obviously the true policy of Austria, France, and England, for they had been gainers by it. But Spain had lost her provinces, and the loss was not forgotten. Elizabeth, queen of Spain, was desirous of a provision for her infant sons; while the Cardinal Alberoni, the ruling minister, boldly meditated the reconquest of the Italian provinces, the acquisition of the regency of France for his king, and the establishment of the Pretender on the throne of England. Accordingly, in 1717, when Austria was engaged in a Turkish war, Alberoni invaded and conquered Sardinia, and, in the following year, Sicily. To check these proceedings, and enforce the provisions of the peace, an alliance was formed against Spain—at first, between France and England; it was afterwards joined by Austria; and, from the hope that Holland would accede, it was termed the Quadruple Alliance. Its conditions were, the mutual renunciation of Spain and India by the emperor, and of Italy and the Netherlands by the king of Spain; the reversion of Tuscany, Parma, and Piacenza, for Don Carlos, son of Elizabeth; and the exchange by Austria of Sicily for Sardinia. These terms were rejected by Alberoni, and war was formally proclaimed against Spain. Hostilities were, however, terminated, in 1720, by the fall of Alberoni, and the conditions of the Quadruple Alliance were immediately accepted by Spain. Still there were several points of contest unsettled. The anxiety of Charles VI. at having no male issue, led him to frame an order of succession, termed the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which he aimed at securing his dominions to his female heirs; this became hereafter a standing article in all foreign negotiations, and, in 1740, led to the war of the succession in Bavaria. Another difficulty arose from Charles's project, in 1722, of giving his Netherlands a share in Indian trade from the port of Ostend: this was viewed by the maritime powers as an encroachment on their rights, and an in-

fringement of the peace of Westphalia. These and various other points were to be settled at the congress of Cambrai. The congress opened in April, 1724; but the numerous claims and conflicting interests of the parties led to endless disputes, and the congress terminated like the last chapter of *Rasselas*, in a "conclusion in which nothing was concluded."

9. During these negotiations, a spark was kindled in Spain which led to a general conflagration. The Infanta, while yet a minor, had been conveyed to Paris to be affianced to the young king, and was sent back, April 5, 1724, because the Duke of Bourbon, the new minister, desired that the king should be married without delay. In the following year, Louis XV. espoused Maria, the daughter of the Polish ex-king, Stanislaus Lescinsky. The indignation of Queen Elizabeth, whose influence over Philip was complete, led to an immediate alliance between Spain and Austria, the conditions of which were, the ratification of the peace of Utrecht, and a mutual guarantee of all possessions on their present footing; acknowledgment of the mutual order of succession; and, as a secret article, mutual succour in case of an attack. In the commercial treaty, the Ostend Company was sanctioned by Spain. The consequence of this was a counter alliance, signed at Herrnhausen, September 3, 1725, by England, France, and Prussia: the last of these powers, however, soon abandoned the alliance, and joined the imperial party. Holland became a party to the league, on account of the Ostend Company, and the north of Europe was presently involved in the general struggle; Denmark and Sweden attaching themselves to the new league, while the emperor secured Russia and several German states. Thus again was Europe in arms, and an attack of Spain on Gibraltar was the signal for open hostilities. Happily, however, for the peace of Europe, the councils of France were guided by the Cardinal Fleury, those of England by Robert Walpole; and the mutual good understanding which subsisted between these pacific ministers, afforded a strong guarantee for the restoration and continuance of peace. Articles of agreement were signed, May 31, 1727, in Paris, between Austria and the allies of Herrnhausen, on condition of the suspension of the Ostend Company for a term of seven years. Spain acceded to the adjustment, and concluded peace with England in the following year. Again, however, was Austria driven to arms by the demand of the Spanish queen, that Tuscany and Parma should be occupied by Spanish troops, as a security for the succession of her son; and again was peace restored by the intervention of England and Holland, which, by confirming Charles's favourite project of the Pragmatic Sanction, secured his acquiescence in the occupation of the Italian territory, and in the abolition of the Ostend Company. But Charles was unable to retain possession of the Spanish provinces. In 1733, a war broke out in the north of Europe respecting the succession to the throne of

Poland. France and Spain defended the pretensions of Stanislaus, while Austria and Russia declared themselves in favour of Saxony. Among the results of the war was the cession to Spain of the Italian provinces, in favour of Don Carlos; and thus was brought about, by an unforeseen agency, the formerly unsuccessful plan of Elizabeth and Alberoni.

OF THE NORTHERN STATES OF EUROPE.

10. The present period was of more decisive importance for the north of Europe than any which had preceded it. In the latter part of the age of Louis XIV., Peter the Great of Russia, and Charles XII. of Sweden, appeared as adversaries in the field of war and politics; and although all the states of the north were overtaken by the storm of revolution, it was, in reality, Russia and Sweden whose struggle decided the event. The contest between these powerful monarchs has been already described. The prosecution and termination of this war display the vicissitudes which prevailed in the north: its importance, however, is to be estimated far less with reference to the immediate losses and gains consequent upon it, than to the internal relations between the states which were thereby developed. Russia was now unquestionably the first of the northern powers. Its monarch, possessed of equal energy and inflexibility of purpose with Charles XII., secured his lofty position in the political system by combining these qualities with prudence, while his rival was hurried away by passion; and this difference in their temperaments decided the destiny of their respective realms. Peter realized his project of Petersburg, assumed the imperial title, acquired the dominion of the Baltic, and navigated it with fleets of his own building, when the Swedish dominion had virtually ceased to exist. Poland had been, since 1696, under the sway of Augustus II., elector of Saxony; but the ancient anarchy continued to exist. The nation, far from profiting by the example of Russia, carefully guarded against any reform; and the new king, though not unambitious, possessed none of the qualifications necessary for a reformer. About the middle of the present period, Poland, devastated by foreign and civil wars, exhausted by famine and the plague, and torn by religious discords, appeared in a state of internal dissolution. In 1733, Augustus died, and, by the influence of France, Stanislaus Lescinsky, father-in-law of Louis XV., was elected to the throne. But, by the aid of Russia, the pretensions of Stanislaus were set aside, and Augustus III. of Saxony obtained the Polish crown. His government was merely a continuation of that of his father: the seeds of evil, which had germinated under the former reign, now sprang into rank luxuriance; while the corruption of the nobles, who constituted the nation, was ensuring a day of fearful retribution. *Denmark, during the first thirty years of this period, was*

ruled by Frederic IV. Though immediately involved in the northern war, it suffered the least change, either in its constitution or in the character of its government. The fall of Sweden and the rise of Russia were for the benefit of Denmark; Russia being more remote and less oppressive than its former rival. But the family dissension with the house of Holstein-Gottorp became more menacing by the marriage of the young duke, Frederic IV., with the sister of Charles XII. Denmark obtained by the peace the dutchy of Sleswick; but the time was coming when the offended house of Gottorp would be in a condition to demand satisfaction for the injury. Prussia from 1688 to 1713 had been under the dominion of Frederic I., elector of Brandenburg. In 1701, Prussia was raised to the condition of a kingdom; and it henceforth became a fundamental maxim of its policy, to endeavour to place itself on an equal rank with the leading powers of Europe. The fall of Sweden released this rising power from a very troublesome neighbour; and under the economical regulations of Frederic William I., who succeeded his extravagant father, the monarchy acquired a high degree of internal improvement.

SECTION IV.

OF THE EUROPEAN SYSTEM FROM 1740 TO 1786.

1. THIS period of history derives its principal character from the system adopted by Frederic the Great. The house of Hohenzollern had been generally distinguished for its skill in the management of its public and domestic economy. The long reigns of the Great Elector and the Great Frederic, raised this country to an eminent position in the scale of nations; for these popular heroes, placing themselves at the head of the civilization of the time, stood out as the political patterns of European sovereigns; while the geographical situation of Prussia, and the active character of the inhabitants, seemed to mark out this country as the political link, not only for the various states of Germany, but also for the east and west of Europe. During this period, all the principal thrones of Europe, except that of the Bourbons, were occupied by Germans: the armies of Germany were the models of military art—German countries, of civil administration. The struggle of Great Britain with France for colonial ascendancy, was merged in a German war; the period was, indeed, eminently German; and the military monarchy, which it was Frederic's great object to establish, became the new type of policy to which the European governments generally endeavoured to conform. During a part of this period, a closer connection than usual subsisted between the north and the south of Europe. The

relations of the former, however, being in great measure dependent on Russia, will require a separate notice.

2. *Frederic the Great.*—Frederic II. succeeded to the throne of his father in 1740. He was the founder of that form of autocracy which now prevails over the greater part of Europe. His leading idea was that of centralization—himself the moving centre of all things. All authorities, corporate or individual, which under other forms of government intervene between the king and the people, lost, one after another, their legitimate importance. The nobles were impoverished and dependent; the clergy became pensioners of the state. The king wanted no council; he constituted his own cabinet—he was his own minister. The strength of the state, instead of consisting in the nation, was found in the army; and the obedience of the camp was gradually transferred to every branch of the civil department. Economy was a ruling maxim. Everything was done by the simplest and the cheapest method. In short, the modern kingdom of Prussia, when fully established by the energies of Frederic, was a wonderful state-machine, of which he alone was the worker; it became, so to say, automatic; for, although the master never failed to superintend it in person, it was capable of working without his presence. The precise character of this remarkable man is yet a mystery. His admirers describe him as the father of his people; his detractors, as an ambitious and heartless despot. He certainly never identified himself with his people: to them, only the prince was devoted—the man, to a small circle of foreigners. This separation produced serious results. The nation lost the respect it deserved; the king remained behind his people and the spirit of the age; and hence the important changes, which the rights and relations of other states imperatively called for, remained entirely out of his plan. It is admitted on all hands, that his career was marked, from the beginning to the end, by a unity and inflexibility of purpose. Circumstances altered, and generations passed away, while he sat upon the throne: he alone, under all circumstances, remained unchanged, unchangeable.

OF THE SOUTHERN EUROPEAN STATES.

3. *First Silesian War.*—This period opened with a great convulsion of the system of Europe, which, as it aimed at the destruction of one of its leading monarchies, seemed to threaten the overthrow of the whole. Charles VI., the last male descendant of the house of Hapsburg, died on the 20th of October, 1740, leaving his daughter, Maria Theresa, heiress, according to the Pragmatic Sanction (p. 501), to all his states. No sooner had she ascended the throne, than she was surrounded by a host of enemies who disputed the succession with her. Among the claimants were the electors of Bavaria and of Saxony, who had married the daughters of Joseph, elder brother of the deceased

emperor. The king of Sardinia affected the duchy of Milan; while the kings of Spain and Poland claimed the whole Austrian dominions. But Frederic II. of Prussia was the first to commence hostilities. Supported by a large army and an ample treasury, he advanced some groundless claims to the province of Silesia, invaded the country, which was almost defenceless, and achieved its conquest in 1741. The distracted condition of the Austrian monarchy at this moment, offered a tempting opportunity to France to assist in overthrowing her ancient rival, and dismembering her provinces. No semblance of justice could be shown for the interference of this power; for France had not merely recognised, but had actually guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction. A secret league was nevertheless concluded between France, Bavaria, Spain, and Saxony. This confederacy was conditionally joined by Frederic; and Prussia, for the first time, became the ally of France. Thus was the Austrian monarchy threatened by an alliance composed of more than half of Europe, with little prospect of foreign aid. England was already in open war with Spain (p. 487); and, to prevent Russia from offering assistance to Maria Theresa, the allies contrived to involve that state in a war with Sweden. While Frederic was engaged in conquering Silesia, a French and Bavarian army penetrated into Upper Austria and Bohemia, and conquered Prague, where the elector of Bavaria received homage as Charles VII. At this crisis, England interfered; the pacific Walpole yielded his place to the more vehement Carteret—the Spanish war was merged in the German, different as they were in their origin—a subsidy was granted to Maria Theresa—a British German army was collected in the Netherlands—the confederacy against Austria fell asunder—Frederic retired in possession of Silesia—Bohemia was retaken—even Bavaria was conquered; and the emperor Charles VII. was compelled to betake himself to flight. During the year 1743, the British and German forces, known by the name of the Pragmatic Army, gained a victory at Dettingen; the French were driven back beyond the Rhine, and England and Austria gained two new allies in the king of Sardinia and the elector of Saxony.

4. *Second Silesian War.*—The aspect of affairs was now changed. England had interfered in the continental struggle; and France, determined to act no longer as an auxiliary, declared war, in conjunction with Spain, against both Austria and England. The crafty Frederic, fearful of losing Silesia, if Austria with her new allies should be victorious, again entered into connections with France, took up arms against Maria Theresa, and invaded Bohemia, though without success. But, in 1745, another change supervened: Charles VII. died; and his son and successor, Maximilian Joseph, renounced all pretensions to the imperial crown, in return for his hereditary electorate of Bavaria. The consequences of the secession of Bavaria were,

the removal of the theatre of war from Germany, and the accession of Francis I., husband of Maria Theresa, to the imperial throne. There were no longer any reasonable grounds for the continuance of hostilities. Frederic, satisfied with having secured Silesia, retired from the conflict, and concluded the treaty of Breslau with Maria Theresa, now queen of Hungary. Yet France prosecuted the war against England and her allies in the Netherlands; and effected a diversion by encouraging the son of the Pretender to make a descent on Scotland in 1746, with a view to the restoration of his family. The success of this project has been already described (p. 487.) At last, all parties became weary of a protracted war. Philip V. of Spain died in 1746, and was succeeded by Ferdinand VI.; and with him the Spanish alliance was lost; the French navy was almost annihilated; at the same time, a Russian auxiliary army poured down upon the Rhine. These circumstances led to the opening of a congress at Aix-la-Chapelle.

5. *Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.*—The congress opened in 1748, and peace was concluded on the following terms:—1. Mutual restitution of the respective conquests made by France and England. 2. Guarantee of Silesia in favour of Frederic, from all claimants. 3. Guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction in favour of Austria. 4. Guarantee of the British succession in favour of the house of Hanover. By this treaty, the project of dismembering Austria, and thus overthrowing the political system of Europe, was defeated. Silesia indeed was lost; but Austria maintained her position among the leading powers. But the relations of these powers must necessarily have been altered by the introduction of Prussia into their number. The possession of Silesia was the leading object of practical politics; and, for this reason, Austria and Prussia must have appeared the chief nations of the continent. Even the season of peace must have been a season of meditated revenge on the one side, and of vigorous activity on the other. To England, the peace was no further satisfactory, than as affording a respite from defeat and expense, incurred in a cause in which she had no real interest. The right of English subjects to navigate the American seas, without being subject to search, was not mentioned in the treaty, although this claim was the original source of the differences between Great Britain and Spain (p. 487): nothing was settled respecting the contested boundaries of Canada and Nova Scotia. This point was reserved as the germ of another war.

6. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was, in fact, a mere suspension of hostilities. On the one hand, the jealousy of Austria, on account of the loss of Silesia—the cold, selfish policy of Frederic—the general aversion entertained for the newly erected and independent kingdom of Prussia; and, on the other, the commercial rivalry subsisting between France and England—the want of a *precise limitation of their colonial territories*: these were the

causes which were shortly to issue in a fiercer and more diffused war. Meanwhile, the policy of Austria was to gain allies; but more particularly to sever France from her connection with Prussia. In these days of diplomacy, nothing appeared too difficult for accomplishment. In Prince Kaunitz, the court of Vienna found a man of sufficient energy and ability to undertake and execute the task of uniting France and Austria in one common project of sharing between them the dominion of Europe. Louis XV., the dupe of female counsels, fell into the snare, by which the Bourbon family, from having been for two centuries the powerful opponent, became at once the humble auxiliary, of the Austrian dynasty. A defensive treaty was concluded between these two powers in 1756; and was finally renewed and ratified in 1758, by the French minister, Choiseul. They engaged to afford mutual aid with all their forces; and never to make peace, except by common consent. By this act, France disavowed her political character, and the sure penalty followed.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

7. The causes of the Seven Years' War were the jealousies existing between Austria and Prussia, between England and France, as described in the preceding paragraph. The operations of the war were exhibited both on the sea and on land, and were diffused over various parts of the globe. The maritime and commercial war between England and France, broke out in 1755, in America and the West Indies; but had no original connection with the continental struggle between Austria and Prussia. The progress and events of the transatlantic contest belong more particularly to the history of the reign of George II., and have been already sufficiently detailed. But at the commencement of this war, the combinations against Prussia had been so far advanced, as to render a continental war inevitable; and the anxiety of George II. to secure his electoral dominions of Hanover against the arms of France, induced him to form an immediate alliance with Prussia. By this new revolution in the relations of the continental states, the houses of Hanover and Brandenburg, which had almost always been at variance, found themselves united against a confederacy of more than half of Europe. In 1757, Frederic entered Bohemia, defeated the Austrians, and invested Prague; but was at length beaten, obliged to raise the siege, and retire from the field. Meanwhile, a Russian army entered his dominions on one side, and an Austrian army on the other. Frederic marched against the latter, and defeated them at Rosbach. About the same time, the French invaded Hanover, and compelled an army of forty thousand men, under the Duke of Cumberland, to lay down their arms, leaving that country for a time in the hands of the conquerors. At the close of the year, Silesia, which had been taken by an army of Austrians and Hungarians, was retaken, after the victory at Lissa. In 1758, Prince

Ferdinand of Brunswick was appointed by George II. to the command of his electoral forces, and the French were driven by him from Hanover across the Rhine. The seat of war was now removed to Moravia, where Frederic made a fruitless assault upon Olmutz. Thence he directed his march against the Russians, who had been ravaging Brandenburg; a battle took place at Zorndorff, in which Frederic was completely victorious. In 1759, the Russians advanced again, and the king of Prussia suffered a severe defeat at Cunersdorff. In 1760, Frederic made an unsuccessful attempt upon Dresden; but, before the close of the year, he recovered all Saxony, with the exception of this town. In 1761, the king of Prussia, exhausted by his victories as well as by his defeats, carried on a defensive war; he suffered no defeat, but had the mortification of seeing the Russians in possession of Colberg in Pomerania, and the Austrians of Schweidnitz in Silesia. During the few preceding eventful years, it was fortunate for Frederic that the French had determined to invade Hanover. A diversion was thus effected in that quarter, and was turned to a good account by the victories of Ferdinand. In 1762, the sinking fortunes of Frederic were raised by an unexpected event. With Elizabeth, empress of Russia, died his most inveterate foe; and with her nephew, Peter III., his enthusiastic admirer ascended the throne of Russia. The new emperor not only put a stop to hostilities, but entered into alliance with the Prussian monarch. This was immediately followed by a treaty of peace with Sweden; and Europe beheld the extraordinary spectacle of an army quitting its allies, and advancing to the camp of its enemies, in order to fight on their side. Availing himself of these favourable circumstances, Frederic recovered Schweidnitz, and drove the Austrians out of Silesia. But this alliance was short-lived. Peter the Third was deposed, and succeeded by his wife Catherine II., who maintained a strict neutrality; and the year terminated with a successful campaign of Frederic in Bohemia and other parts of Germany.

8. *Family Compact*.—Meanwhile, the western states of Europe had become implicated in the war. The maritime superiority of Great Britain suggested to the Duke de Choiseul, who was then at the head of the French ministry, the plan of the celebrated *Family Compact*, by which the Bourbon princes were bound to render each other mutual assistance, for the purpose of counterbalancing the power of England. Hitherto, the neutrality of Spain had continued uninterrupted; but, on the accession of Charles III. to the throne of that kingdom, French influence predominated at Madrid, and the *Family Compact* was secretly concluded between the two countries in 1761. All the possessions of both parties were mutually guaranteed, and an alliance, offensive and defensive, was established for ever. Pitt was now eager to anticipate Spain, by a declaration of war; but, meeting with a refusal from the English cabinet, resigned his

place to the Earl of Bute, under whose ministry, war was actually declared in the following year. But the naval superiority of Great Britain hindered the French and Spanish fleets from making any attempt at colonial conquest. Foiled in this project, they turned their attention to Portugal, and required the king of that country to join their alliance; but the treaties previously subsisting between this power and Great Britain, prevented his compliance with their demands.

9. *Affairs of Portugal*.—War was immediately declared by France and Spain against Portugal. This kingdom had sunk into a state of extreme degradation. During the reign of Joseph, who succeeded his father, John V., in 1750, a terrible earthquake had laid Lisbon in ruins, and swept away ten thousand of her inhabitants. This catastrophe had been followed by a devouring conflagration; and this, by a daring conspiracy against the life of the king, which was punished with circumstances of the greatest barbarity. During the reign of Joseph, violent attempts were made by his minister Carvalho, marquis of Pombal, to introduce reforms in every department of the state. Agriculture, industry, commerce, the military force, were all to be newly modelled; all obstacles were removed; the higher nobility and the Jesuits were crushed. Yet at the end of this period, every trace of improvement had vanished; the people were disaffected—the army was mouldering away—the court was sunk in indolent security. Meanwhile, however, relying on the aid of England, the king had refused to comply with the peremptory demand of the Bourbon princes, and a Spanish army crossed the frontiers. But an English fleet, under General Bourgoyne, arrived in time to protect Portugal; and the city of Almeida was the only conquest made by the Spaniards in this country.

10. *Peace of Paris and Hubertsburg*.—The alliance between Prussia and England, which had been marked for several years by a succession of victories, was dissolved before the termination of the war. The allies were now weary of hostilities. England had gained her object in extending her colonial possessions in America and the West Indies; and peace was eagerly desired by her government, now under the administration of the Earl of Bute. France had lost her colonies and her navy together, and had gained nothing by her Family Compact. Preliminaries of peace were accordingly concluded at Fontainebleau, and changed into a definitive peace at Paris, in 1763, without any stipulation in favour of Frederic, further than the neutrality of France. This treaty was followed by that of Hubertsburg, by which Prussia and Austria, deserted by their respective allies, agreed to a reconciliation on the basis of a mutual renunciation of all claims upon the possessions of each other. By the termination of this war, the system founded by Frederic, was confirmed by Europe. France had sacrificed her political pre-eminence, when

she espoused the cause of the empire ; and Prussia and Austria thus became the leading continental powers. Their relation to each other consequently determined the relations of the surrounding states, and regulated the balance of power, not only in Germany, but also in Europe. By the dissolution of the alliance between England and Prussia, the ties of British continental policy were entirely severed ; and the relations of England were now confined to Portugal and Holland. But, during the progress of the war, England had begun to turn her naval superiority to a new account. After destroying the maritime forces of her enemies, she proceeded to destroy their commerce, by seizing neutral vessels, and declaring their traffic illegal. The disputes arising from this practice were terminated for the present by the conclusion of the war ; but they were renewed on every future occasion of hostilities, and formed the basis of what England in after times called her maritime law.

11. *Suppression of the Jesuits.*—The period of several years which immediately ensued after the treaty of Paris, was characterized by an unusual activity of the several governments in regulating their internal administration. Prussia was a new and leading power, and had set the example of a new system to the European states: her very existence, therefore, depended on the intelligent and unwearied development of all her resources. Austria, her rival, smarting from the recent wound she had received, felt the necessity of advancing in a parallel line of improvement. Public constitutions and legislation became for the first time the subjects of investigation. Systems of government and of political economy occupied the pens of eminent writers ; while religion, morals, and education, became the topics of philosophical speculation. Under such circumstances, public opinion, guided by such writers as Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau, D'Alembert, Locke, and others, assumed an unusual importance ; and those institutions against which it raised its voice, were either annihilated or lingered out a precarious existence. Among the effects of the philosophical tendency of the age, must be reckoned the general suppression of the order of the Jesuits. Various causes undoubtedly conspired to produce their fall ; but these would never have been so effectual, had it not been felt that their institution was contradictory to the spirit of the age. And hence it was observed, that their most determined opponents were always found in the very country where the order had reached its highest perfection. Their first collision took place with the Portuguese minister, Pombal. They had been implicated in the attempt to assassinate the king, proscribed as traitors and disturbers of the public peace, deprived of their possessions, and were banished from the kingdom in 1759. Their next antagonist was the French minister, Choiseul. A spirit of opposition arose in France: the parliament assumed an unusual tone of independence, and was permitted by Louis XV., in 1762,

to limit ecclesiastical tyranny, and to abolish the society of Jesuits in that kingdom. These examples were followed, in 1767, by the Spanish cabinet. Charles III. and his minister, Count d'Aranda, considering the order as hostile to all existing governments, adopted the most summary means of removing them from Spain and its colonies. They were seized in Mexico and Peru, and in Paraguay, where they had established an almost independent empire: they were suddenly deposed, and transported to Europe. In the following year, they were expelled from Naples and from Parma, in defiance of the earnest remonstrances of Pope Clement XIII., who now found himself opposed to almost all Italy, and to the leading powers of Western Europe. Eventually, the fraternity was abolished in 1773, by Ganganelli, at that time Pope Clement XIV.

12. *First Partition of Poland.*—During this interval of repose, a project was ripening in the cabinets of the leading states of Europe, for the extension and continuity of their territories. The want of compactness in the Prussian monarchy, was an obstacle to the internal system of administration, of which that kingdom was the type and model. The fruit of the new maxims on this subject were presently seen in the calmly concerted spoliation of a neighbouring state. In 1764, Stanislaus Augustus was placed on the throne of Poland by Catherine of Russia. Poland was at this time in a state of passive anarchy. The bigotry of the people, and the licentiousness of the aristocracy, had reached an excess which the new king was unable to limit; and soon furnished a pretext for the interference of his more powerful neighbours. This was found in the cause of the *dissidents*, or dissenting sects, who appealed for protection to Russia, Prussia, and Denmark. The opportunity was too tempting to be resisted. Under the plea of supporting the cause of toleration, a permanent extension of territory was contemplated. A Russian army was sent to enforce the claim of the applicants, and Poland was treated as if she had been a province of the northern despot. In 1772, a treaty was concluded between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, for dividing the Polish provinces between themselves; and the diet at Warsaw, overawed by the united forces of the three powers, had no choice but that of submission to a scheme which left to Poland the mere shadow of existence. This measure, which had been conceived and executed in defiance of every principle of justice and of international law, destroyed the barriers between legitimate right and arbitrary power, and was the first step towards the overthrow of the political system which for three hundred years had prevailed in Europe. The leading parties in this act of spoliation might, perhaps, content themselves with alleging that the balance of power was preserved in nearly equal division of the plundered territory; but to the inferior states, the system of political equilibrium was destroyed. If this consideration were lawful, none

could hereafter be considered unlawful ; and, if Prussia—which, from its peculiar position, might have been considered the champion of the law of nations—were among the first to infringe that law, it was hopeless to turn for redress to other powers. England and France looked on, and did not interfere. The former had other matters to occupy her attention ; the latter was too degraded.

13. *Bavarian War.*—The Bavarian electoral line having become extinct in 1777, by the death of Maximilian, the succession reverted by right to Charles Theodore, the Elector Palatine. Several claimants, however, came forward ; and it appeared for a time, that Bavaria was in danger of sharing the fate of Poland. The empress Maria Theresa, her son and colleague, Joseph II., and the electress-dowager of Saxony, urged their several pretensions to portions of this territory. Meanwhile, before these claims could be well known, a compact was formed between the Elector Palatine and the court of Vienna ; and an Austrian army immediately occupied all Lower Bavaria. Under these circumstances, Frederic II., fearing that, with the fall of Bavaria, his own political system, and the whole imperial constitution of Germany, would be overthrown, entered Bohemia with an army of Prussians and Saxons, in order to expel the Austrians, and restore Bavaria to its rightful owner. Never were armies more numerous or better disciplined brought in array against each other, without some memorable action taking place. But in the meantime, the courts of France and Russia interposed as mediators ; and a congress was held at Teschen, in 1779, which was followed by a treaty of peace. By the terms of this treaty, Austria obtained a portion of Lower Bavaria, in consideration of the abolition of the compact of Vienna. To Prussia was granted the future union of the margravates of Anspach and Baireuth, with the electorate of Brandenburg. Saxony received six million dollars ; and Mecklenburg, the privilege of *non appellando*, by virtue of which no appeal could be made from the tribunals of that country to the sovereign courts of the empire. Thus was the war of the Bavarian succession checked at its commencement without bloodshed. It is remarkable that the Palatine family, the party principally interested, took no share in it ; that Bavaria, the sole cause of the war, was in no way implicated in it ; and that the Elector Palatine, who had even refused the aid of the king of Prussia, was eventually indebted to him for the preservation of his rights.

14. The death of Maria Theresa, in 1780, left Joseph II. sole ruler. This prince was, in every respect, the exponent of the age in which he lived—active, reckless of right, and imbued with the passion of extending and consolidating his dominions. The peace of Teschen had put an end to hostilities, but had not allayed irritation. The acquisition of Bavaria was still the favourite project of the Austrian cabinet. The condition of Europe at this

period was favourable to any design of Joseph. England, France, Spain, and the Netherlands, were fast emerging from the war which had been prosecuted in America, and needed repose. The peace of Versailles, which terminated that war, had produced no change in the possessions of the continental states. The amicable relations between England and France were more steady than they had been before, and had resulted in a treaty of commerce. Under these circumstances, the house of Austria, having failed in the attempt to conquer Bavaria, endeavoured to get possession of that country by way of exchange for the Netherlands. The Elector Palatine was willing to accede to the negotiation; but the Duke of Deux-Ponts, his successor and heir-presumptive, was haughtily opposed to the exchange. Even Russia, with its new alliance with Austria, promoted the project. Thus was Frederic the Great, at the very close of his eventful career, compelled to see his political system threatened. Such a measure he saw to be inadmissible, subversive of former treaties, and incompatible with the best interests of the German constitution. He made no appeal to arms, and the project was ostensibly abandoned; but the alarm which it had excited throughout the empire, gave rise to an association known by the name of the Germanic Confederation, and based on the common and permanent interest of all the states of the empire. It was concluded at Berlin in 1785, between the three electors of Saxony, Brandenburg, and Brunswick-Luneburg, and several of the provinces of the imperial states. This was Frederic's last achievement. In 1786, he died: leaving the scene of his glory for the celebration of the different actors, and of far weightier revolutions.

OF THE NORTHERN EUROPEAN STATES.

THE NORTH-NETHERLANDS.—1. The political system of the north of Norway had been much changed since the sudden aggrandizement of Russia under Peter the Great; and its relations with the western states had been drawn into a closer connection than before. The influence of Russia was paramount in every negotiation, whether of a diplomatic or military character. Yet, from the death of Peter I. in 1725, to the accession of Catherine II. in 1762, this vast empire could boast of no monarch, statesman, or warrior, of eminent ability. Petty intrigues and personal interests, frequently of the most disreputable kind, decided

both the domestic and foreign relations, isolated—though not on that account less cruel—was the ruling principle of Russia; while the two bordering and rival monarchies, Sweden and Poland, were the victims of faction and anarchy.—2. Under the reign of Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, who came to the throne in 1751, and still more under that of Adolphus Frederic, who succeeded him in 1751, Sweden was involved in perpetual troubles.

The government was in the hands of a faction, and stimulated by a ranking hatred

of Russia, and dependent on foreign subsidies for its political existence. It was an easy matter for a designing power to turn this state of things to account. Thus, in 1739, when it was the interest of France to raise Sweden against Russia, she secured her object by means of the rival factions of the *Hats* and the *Caps*. The former, or the war party, was then dominant, entirely devoted to French interests, and hoped, by a treaty of perpetual alliance against Russia, to repair the losses which had been entailed by the disastrous follies of Charles XII.—3. The history of Poland exhibits the worst consequences of a vicious constitution. The only elective monarchy in Europe, it was subject, at the demise of each sovereign, to the perils of intestine commotion and foreign interference. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, Augustus, elector of Saxony, had been placed on the throne by Russia; and, after twenty-four years' experience of the miseries of faction and conspiracy, bequeathed his kingdom in 1733 to his son, Augustus III., though not without a struggle on the part of France to place Stanislaus Lescinsky on the throne. The reign of Augustus opened no prospect of independence for Poland. Russia, the king-maker, was also the law-maker; and, after a period of thirty years of anarchy, the kingdom was transmitted in 1764, under Russian arms, to Count Poniatowski, a creature of Catherine II., under the name and title of Stanislaus Augustus. The detestable intrigue which subsequently issued in the dismemberment of this unhappy country, has been already noticed (p. 512).—4. The affairs of Denmark, since the fall of Sweden, had been in a tranquil condition. Under Christian VI., who succeeded Frederick IV. in 1730, and under Frederick V., who came to the throne in 1746, this country was devoted to the improvement of its own institutions. Manufactories were established, and commerce flourished. Even the Russian cabinet, under Elizabeth, made the preservation of its friendship a maxim of state policy, on account of the relations with Sweden. Nothing but the ancient feud with Holstein-Gottorp, appeared to darken its political horizon.—5. Of Prussia, during this period, the connecting link between the north and the west of Europe, sufficient has been said in the preceding pages.

16. In 1740, the Empress Anne, niece of Peter the Great, died; and was succeeded, in the following year, by his daughter Elizabeth. This period opened in the north with the above-mentioned war between Sweden and Russia, which had been contrived by France, in order to divert the latter power from interfering in the great question of the Austrian succession (p. 506). This war, which was unsuccessful to Sweden, was terminated in 1748 by the peace of Abo in Finland, on conditions that the river Kymen should be the boundary of the two kingdoms, and that Adolphus Frederic, of Holstein-Gottorp, should be the future successor to the crown of Sweden. At this time,

the rapid progress of Frederic induced the Russian cabinet to direct its attention principally to the affairs of the West, and to take an active part in the war on which the preponderance of Prussia or of Austria appeared to depend. Elizabeth died in 1762, and was succeeded by her nephew, Peter III.; but, after a short reign of six months, a revolution precipitated him from the throne into the grave. His widow, Catherine II., became empress of Russia; and, with her, a new order of things commenced, not only for Russia, but for the North in general. The ratification of the separate peace with Prussia (p. 509), altered the relations of the North, by severing the alliance with Austria, and leaving Catherine unfettered by foreign ties. But the designs of Russia against Poland, which issued in the dismemberment of that country, led to the arming of another power.

17. *Turkish War.*—The encroachments of Russia in the direction of Poland, had long been a source of uneasiness and jealousy to the Turkish power. The alarm which was entertained for its northern provinces, was studiously increased by French influence, through the ambassador Vergennes, at the Porte; and, in 1768, war was declared against Russia, by Mustapha III., who then filled the throne of Constantinople. A contest ensued for six years, on sea and land. New and bold projects were formed to penetrate beyond the Danube—to urge the Greeks to rebellion—to despatch a squadron from the Baltic to the Archipelago, and threaten the capital—to contract alliances in Egypt, and wrest it from the Porte; and all these plans were partly executed; for a peace of almost thirty years had lulled the military energies of Turkey, while the armies of Russia were conducted by a Romanzoff. The theatre of war was thus expanded, and with circumstances disastrous to the Turks. Their fleet was destroyed in the bay of Tchesmé; their army defeated on the Pruth; and the provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabia, fell into the hands of the Russians. Meanwhile, the attention of Catherine was directed to affairs of a different nature. In 1771, a desolating pestilence penetrated from the army as far as Moscow; and, in the course of a single year, cut off nearly 100,000 men. An insurrection threatened to shake her throne; while in the two neighbouring states of Sweden and Poland, two opposite revolutions were taking place at the same time; that of Sweden being directly contrary to the objects and wishes of Russia.

18. The Swedish revolution was effected by Gustavus III., who succeeded his father, Adolphus Frederic, in 1771. This prince had long wished to abolish the restrictions with which the aristocracy had fettered the monarchy since the death of Charles XII.; for, whether the *Habs* supported by French subsidies, as in 1758, had the ascendancy, or the *Cops*, under the influence of England and Russia, were in their turn victorious, as in 1766, both parties agreed in the common policy of making the senate foreigner arbiter of state affairs. With Gustavus, a new order

of things commenced. He seemed to have derived a talent from his great uncle Frederic; and found support in a class of free citizens, who had become weary of aristocratic tyranny. Assembling the officers of his army, he repaired to the senate-house; read a decree already prepared, and caused it to be signed by all the members; after which, the senate was dissolved. The new constitution left the states their rights; the council of the kingdom was merely deprived of its share in the government: no aggressive war could be waged without the consent of the states. By this revolution, one of the most limited monarchies of Europe was converted into one of the most absolute, without any loss of blood; and the designs of Russia, to whom the previous anarchy had been favourable, were completely thwarted.

19. By the intervention of Prussia, peace was concluded in 1774, between Russia and Turkey, by which the empress resigned Bessarabia, Moldavia, and Wallachia; but reserved the right of taking an interest in their affairs at Constantinople, together with the privilege of commercial navigation in the Black Sea and in all the Turkish seas. This peace was advantageous to Russia, but most calamitous for the Ottoman Porte; and the relations between these powers continued to be very complicated. Russia maintained a formal alliance with Prussia; and, since the Swedish revolution, entered into a secret compact with Denmark. Thus, the Turkish peace, and the Polish partition, introduced an order of things in the North, which seemed merely a transition to future convulsions. From this time, Catherine entertained the project of rearing a Grecian empire on the ruins of the Ottoman power; and the Porte became, consequently, the object of Russian policy.

SECTION V.

OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN INDIA.

1. *Affairs of the Carnatic.*—The period of the Seven Years' War in Europe, was also the period of the establishment of the British empire in India. About the beginning of the eighteenth century, since the death of Aurungzebe, the empire of Tamerlane had fallen into decay, while the petty governors, under the title of Soubhabs and Nawâbs, assumed an independence in their several districts, under the merely nominal sovereignty of the Great Mogul at Delhi. The French and the English saw an opening in this state of things, not only for an extension of commercial enterprise, but also for the acquisition of territorial dominion. France set the example; and appears to have wanted only the ability to avail herself of means which were actually in her possession, to secure the dominion of India. During the

war of the Austrian succession, France enjoyed the ascendancy in the eastern seas. In 1746, Labourdonnais, governor of Mauritius, wrested Madras from the hands of the English; but his success, awakening the jealousy of his countryman Dupleix, governor of Pondicherry, who had begun to entertain gigantic schemes of conquest in these parts, led to a dispute, which resulted in the disgrace, recall, and imprisonment, of the former. Madras was restored to the English at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; but the superior talents of Dupleix, secured to him the successful issue of the contests which ensued along the coast of Coromandel. In 1748, a theatre was opened for the display of his abilities in the Carnatic. By the death of the Nizam al Mulk, the viceroyalty of the Deccan descended to his son Nazir Jung; while the Carnatic, the richest and most extensive province of the viceroy, was governed by an ancient nawâb, called by the English, Anaverdy Khan. Two pretenders appeared; and their claims were supported by Dupleix. A battle was fought, in which the French distinguished themselves. Mirzapha Jung succeeded to the Deccan; Chunda Sahib, to the Carnatic: Anaverdy Khan was slain; and his son, Mahommed Ali, afterwards known as the nawâb of Arcot, put to flight. Dupleix was now declared governor of India, from the river Kistnah to Cape Comorin, a tract of country as large as France, with the command of seven thousand cavalry, unlimited pecuniary resources, and the absolute control over thirty millions of people. But France, at this time under the feeble reign of Louis XV., understood neither her own interests nor the abilities of her enterprising officer; and the golden opportunity was lost for ever. Dupleix was in a short time superseded; and returned to Europe, wrecked in fame and fortune, and sank into an obscure grave.

2. *British Government of Bengal.*—The name of Clive is famous in Anglo-Indian history. With his first visit to the East commences the glory of the British arms in that quarter of the world. Under his command, a company of merchants became the founders of an empire, far superior to the mother country in extent and population; and England was destined to become at once the mart of Indian wares, and the gulf of Indian treasure. The English triumphed everywhere. In 1756, Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, was taken, and Mahommed Ali placed on the throne of his father. Hostilities spread over the whole coast of Coromandel. In 1761, Masulipatam was taken; Pondicherry in the following year. The northern Circar was resigned in 1766; and the nawâb of the Carnatic enjoyed perfect independence. But the operations of Clive were now directed to a more arduous task. In order to establish a territorial dominion in India, it became necessary to gain possession of that part of the country from which the great territorial revenues were derived. In Bengal, situated on the rich soil of the Ganges, the English had possessed a settlement, at Calcutta, as early as 1690; and had

confirmed it in a few years afterwards, by the erection of Fort-William. In 1756, the settlement and the fort were conquered by Surajah Dowlah, the nawâb of Bengal. The captives, in number a hundred and forty-six, were incarcerated and suffered to perish in the Black Hole. To avenge this outrage, Clive immediately repaired with a fleet to Calcutta—reconquered the place—dispossessed the French of their settlement at Chander-nagore—gained a decisive victory over the nawâb at Plassey, and placed Mir Jaffier on the throne of Bengal. A detail of these transactions, in which forty thousand infantry and fifteen thousand cavalry were brought into the field against a handful of men, of whom scarce a thousand were English soldiers, would savour of romance; but there was no need of conflict such as the Corteses and Pizarros sustained in America; for here, the baseness of the Mogul nobles rendered a powerful aid to the vigour of British warfare. It is enough to say that, by this brief campaign, the supremacy of England was established in Northern India, where it has never since been shaken. Another foe, however, remained to be intimidated. In 1765, the nawâb of Oude, and Shah Alum, eldest son of the Great Mogul, assembled an army of forty thousand men, with the design of deposing the upstart whom the English had raised to the throne of Bengal. But the terror of the British name prevailed, and in a few days tranquillity was restored. As a token of gratitude, Mir Jaffier bestowed upon Clive the quit-rent, which the East India Company was bound to pay their nawâb for the extensive domain held by them on the south of Calcutta, amounting to near thirty thousand pounds sterling per annum. But the gratitude of the Hindoo governor soon yielded to sentiments of a different kind: he feared his benefactor; and looked around for the means of dissolving the tie between them. Since 1698, the Dutch merchants had possessed a settlement at Chinsurah. Communications were opened in this quarter; and a fleet of seven large Batavian ships from Java made their appearance in the Hoogley, and attempted to force a passage. The English encountered this new enemy on land and on sea—took their ships—routed their forces—and exacted from the authorities of Holland an ample apology for this infraction of treaties. About this time, a treaty was made at Allahabad, by Clive, with the Great Mogul, for the purpose of placing the government of Bengal on a new footing; when the titular monarch of India resigned into the hands of the Company the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, in consideration of an annual sum of twelve lacs of rupees. By this arrangement, the association of Leadenhall Street, having previously acquired the commerce, secured the administration and sovereignty of the country, though the shadow of them was left to the former rulers. These important measures being concluded, Clive returned to England.

3. *Meanwhile, the Company was far from realizing the advan-*

tages which had been anticipated from its new acquisition. The interests of the Directors in London were found to clash with those of their agents in India. The latter were eager to increase their commercial dividends by the territorial revenues; while the former were no less anxious to apply the surplus income to their own purposes. The internal misgovernment of the country had already menaced the very existence of society; the servants of the Company had secured to themselves a monopoly of the principal branches of domestic trade; the established hereditary rents of farms were converted into annual rents, by which means all security of tenure was at once abolished; the courts of justice were insulted with impunity; vast sums of money were annually exported to England and China: every evil, in short, which might be looked for under a dominion founded on violence, and maintained by rapacity, was found in Bengal. The indignation occasioned by this state of things, soon found a voice in a dangerous foe. In 1767, the presidency of Madras was reduced to extremities by the arms of Hyder Ali, sultan of Mysore. The Company was eventually successful; and peace was for the present concluded in 1769, with mutual restitution of conquests, and declaration of the freedom of trade. In the following year, Calcutta was visited by a terrible dearth: the rains failed; and the mortality which ensued was reckoned by millions. Meanwhile, Clive had been despatched to India for the third time, in order, if possible, to reform the Bengal administration. To this task he devoted about a year and a-half; and returned to England in 1767, to encounter the bitter enmity of those whose rapacity he had endeavoured to check. The closing scene of the life of this extraordinary man is painfully interesting. Twice in his youth, disgusted with his occupation as a writer in the Company's service, had he attempted suicide; eventually, after a career of prosperity to which few parallels can be found in the history of any nation, he died by his own hand.

4. At this period, the name of another Englishman became famous in the annals of Anglo-Indian history. Warren Hastings, like his predecessor Clive, had been sent to India in his youth, in the capacity of a writer; and in 1750, was engaged in the secretary's office at Calcutta. After the battle of Plassey, he was appointed to reside at the court of Mir Jaffier, as agent for the Company; whence he was removed in 1761, made a member of council, and resided at Calcutta. In 1764, he returned to England; but in 1769, he resumed his employment in India, as a member of council at Madras. The affairs of the Company were then in a very disorganized state. Their functionaries had assumed the character of principals, and were diverting the wealth of the Directors in England into the channels of their own private gains. The old maxim, "*Querenda pecunia primum, virtus post nummos,*" appears to have been

stamped upon all their negotiations. In a few months, Hastings effected an important reform: in return for which, the Directors placed him, in 1772, at the head of the government of Bengal. At this time, the authority of the governor was by no means so absolute as it became at a subsequent period. He had but a single vote in council; and, in case of an equal division, a casting vote. The internal government of Bengal was intrusted to a native minister, who was responsible for his acts only to the British rulers of the country. The office was lucrative; its possession was the object of much factious rivalry. Hastings commenced his reforms by abolishing this office, by transferring the civil administration to the servants of the Company, and by extinguishing even the nominal authority of the Hindoo rulers in the affairs of the government. His attention was then directed to the state of the exchequer. The Directors were urgent in their claims of remittances, while the coffers of the Company were nearly empty. Money was to be gotten: if this could be effected honestly, it was well it should be so; if not, it was equally important that it should be procured by less direct means. It occurred to Hastings that, as the ostensible authority of the Indian princes had been abolished, there was no occasion for continuing their salaries. The annual payment of three hundred and twenty thousand pounds to the nawâb of Bengal, was forthwith curtailed to a half; while the Great Mogul was not only mulcted in the whole amount of his pension of three hundred thousand pounds, but had also the mortification of seeing the districts of Corah and Allahabad, which had been ceded to him by the British, pass into the possession of the nawâb of Oude, in consideration of about half a million sterling being paid by that potentate into the Anglo-Bengalee treasury. But a darker transaction remains to be told. For an additional sum of four hundred thousand pounds, Hastings lent his English troops to the same nawâb of Oude, for the avowed purpose of subjugating to his dominion the country of the Rohillas, a gallant and well-ordered Afghan race, who had given no provocation, but were not the less on that account subjected to all the horrors attendant on successful Indian warfare. By these and other means, the revenues of the Company were improved, without any additional imposts upon the subjects of the government. In less than two years, the annual income was increased by about four hundred and fifty thousand pounds; a million was procured in ready money; while the military expenditure, amounting to nearly a quarter of a million a-year, was defrayed from the treasury of the nawâb of Oude.

5. *Act of Regulation.*—Meanwhile, the British Parliament, under the administration of Lord North, passed an Act of Regulation, in 1773, which in the following year was introduced into India, and effected a considerable change in the government of that country. By this measure, it was provided that the govern-

or of Bengal should be the governor-general of all the British possessions, with the highest civil and military power; that he should be assisted by a supreme council, consisting of four members, who were to be independent of the governor-general and council, and intrusted with the civil and criminal jurisdiction; that a supreme court of judicature should be erected by the crown, with appeal to the privy council; that the right of declaring war or peace, and of negotiating with the native princes, should be vested solely in the governor-general and the supreme council; that all regulations, civil and military, were to be laid before the secretary of state in England, with power in the crown to annul them; and that Warren Hastings should be the first governor-general. By these new regulations, the government of India was more concentrated, and the interests of the Company placed on a better footing. At the same time, the parliament gained something in the dependence of the Indian empire on the mother country. For India herself, the gain was small. Disputes immediately arose between Hastings and the council; the government was wrested out of the hands of the governor-general, his measures severely censured, and charges of corruption instituted against him. The Hindoo population were incensed at the ignominious execution of Nuncomar, their chief brahmin, who had long been a bitter foe to Hastings, and whose death, decreed under judicial circumstances little familiar to Indian notions, was very naturally attributed to him. In England, a storm was collecting against the governor: the directors of the Company, and the ministers of the crown, were employing every effort to supersede him. He tendered his resignation: it was accepted, and a substitute despatched to India. Yet his genius surmounted these difficulties. By the death of one of the council, he recovered the ascendancy; and, on the arrival of his intended successor, he declared his resignation to be invalid. The supreme court decided the point of invalidity; even the directors dropped their persecution; and at the termination of the five years, when the period of the first governorship expired, Hastings was quietly re-appointed to the office.

6. *War in the Carnatic.*—But permanent quiet could not exist in India under the present oppression. It was evident that existence could be maintained only by further conquest. The Mahratta tribes, occupying the western coast of the peninsula, had risen upon the decay of the Mogul empire, and, from being robbers and freebooters, had become mighty conquerors and rajahs. They were powerful in Guzerat, Berar, and Tanjore: their peshwa lived in regal pomp at Poonah, and his authority was acknowledged throughout the extensive districts of Aurungabad and Bejapoor. In 1779, a grand alliance was formed between the Mahrattas and Hyder Ali, the founder of the Mahometan kingdom of Mysore, against the Company; and an army of ninety thousand men, commanded by experienced French

ers, poured down upon the Carnatic. In a few weeks, the British empire in Southern India had almost passed into the hands of the invader; while, at the same time, a French expedition was shortly expected on the coast of Coromandel. For years Hyder Ali maintained his position in the Carnatic, and the fortunes of the Company were retrieved by Sir Eyre Coote, who routed Hyder's army, first at Porto Novo, in 1781, afterwards at Pollallore. In the following year, peace was concluded with the Mahrattas, with restoration of the conquered provinces, and exclusive right of trade in favour of the English. The death of Hyder, and the restoration of peace between England and France, led to a termination of the war with Tippoo, the son and successor of Hyder, by the peace of Mangalore in 1784, upon similar terms. The expenses of these wars, the necessity of forwarding remittances to England, compelled Hastings to devise new expedients for replenishing his exchequer. Delhi and Rohilkund had already been victimized; it was necessary to look further. In the rich Benares, and in the independent kingdom of Oude, occasions of spoliation were discovered; and in these northern regions the talent of the British general was exhibited under circumstances of revolt, extortion, and cruelty, almost surpassing belief. But, notwithstanding the successful termination of the war in the south, it was clear that things could not subsist long in their present state. All the extortions which had been practised fell short of satisfying the obligations to the government, and matters were rapidly approaching to a general bankruptcy. Recent transactions had, moreover, proved the inconvenience which results from the existence of a mercantile association, armed with independent powers, within a state; and it began to be very generally felt that the Indian dominion ought to be brought under the control of the English government.

Change in the Administration of India.—In 1783, Mr Fox brought a bill into parliament, for the better administration of the affairs of India. By this measure, the existing direction was to be entirely abolished; and the Company, in its political, commercial, and financial relations, subjected to a board of nine members, chosen by parliament for four years; the commercial affairs were to be placed in the hands of a committee of the Company, subordinate to the Board of Control; the disposal of all affairs was to be vested in the Board. This measure displeased the king, and was rejected by a considerable majority in the House of Lords. A new bill was introduced in the following year by Mr Pitt, and formed the basis of the still-existing constitution. The authority which the former bill proposed to vest in parliamentary commissioners, was transferred to the crown; a Board of Control was established, by means of which the Company's servants were made responsible, in respect of territorial

dominion and patronage, to the government of the mother country, while the direction of the commerce still remained with the Company. Even this could hardly have subsisted, had not the trade with China obtained a considerable importance, owing to the immense consumption of tea. By the Commutation Act of 1784, which lowered the duties on tea, and increased the duties to a similar amount on windows, the practice of smuggling ceased, and the commercial interests of the Company were preserved.

8. *War with Tippoo Saib.*—Hastings returned to England in 1785. An impeachment was instituted against him for high crimes and misdemeanors. The trial lasted for several years; but he was eventually acquitted by the House of Lords. The East India bill having received the royal assent, Lord Cornwallis was despatched to India, as governor and commander-in-chief, under the new system. Many improvements were introduced, even in the lot of the natives. The British had to fear no Europeans as rivals in India; but the germ of corruption, consisting in internal wars, had not been eradicated. So long as Tippoo Saib reigned in Mysore, he was the most formidable enemy of the British; and their military forces were therefore more concentrated in the south. It was now the aim of the governor to prevent combinations of the other Indian powers, especially of the Mahrattas, with Tippoo, and, by a division of spoils, to attach these warlike tribes to himself. In 1790 hostilities were recommenced in India, by an attack of Tippoo Saib on the rajah of Travancore, an ally of the English, who immediately took the field in connection with the Mahrattas. In the following year Bangalore was conquered, but fruitless attacks were made on Seringapatam, under Cornwallis and Abercrombie. The expedition was renewed in 1792, and peace, including the British allies, was effected under the walls of the capital. Tippoo resigned half of his territories, agreed to pay a large sum of money, and gave two of his sons as hostages until the payment should be made. Lord Cornwallis, having brought the war to a successful termination, returned to England in 1794, and was succeeded by Sir John Shore, afterwards Lord Teignmouth, who was recalled in 1796, in consequence of disturbances among the soldiery. Cornwallis was again appointed, but resigned his office, without going out to India, the disturbances having been allayed. Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquis of Wellesley, was then appointed to the office. In 1799, hostilities were recommenced. Buonaparte had intimated to Tippoo Saib his intention of subverting the English power in India, and a Jacobin club had been formed at the court of the sultan. The apprehensions of the British impelled them to great activity, and their armies pressed forward under General Harris. Seringapatam was invested, and taken by assault; the sultan was slain, his empire divided, and a branch of the old dynasty placed on the throne as a British vassal. Since the fall of Mysore, the British policy in India has undergone a change.

indirect dominion of the merchants was converted into the dominion of the conquerors; the allies were deposed, their confiscated, tributes were exacted, and garrisons erected in territories. In the same year Tanjore was taken, and its became a pensioner; the whole of the Carnatic was even captured, and the British authority was supreme from the Kistnah to Cape Comorin.

War with the Mahrattas.—The Mahrattas were now the powerful foes remaining in India; but, happily for the h, there was no harmony among them. Hostilities had a out with these tribes in 1774, in consequence of the aid Bombay afforded to a pretender against the rajahs of . In 1803, war again raged with these rajahs, and terminated in the following year successfully for the British, who d their conquests towards the north, and took Agra and itself, the residence of the Great Mogul. The terms of peace were highly advantageous to the British. The ceded ories were the Dooab, lying between the Ganges and the a; Beroach in Guzerat; and the district of Kuttak, with the ur of Balasore, between Bengal and the Circars. The rajahs sed neither to take nor keep Europeans in their service; reat Mogul was to be entirely dependent on the English. ese conquests, and by the acquisition of the Dutch possessions in Ceylon, which were added by the peace of Amiens, the rry of the Company extended over all the eastern coast, eater part of the western coast, and on the Ganges and a, as far at Delhi. The principal seat of the military power ow transferred from the south to the countries on the Upper es, and to the neighbourhood of the Sikhs and other warations. Notwithstanding the peace of 1803, war was rel in the following year with Holcar, chief of the Mahrattas, had infringed the territories of the English, and expelled vereign of Poonah. A series of brilliant victories ensued, the command of Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of ngton, Lord Lake, and Harcourt, the result of which were mplete reduction of Holcar, and of his ally, the rajah of poor, an immense increase of territory, and the annihilation of French interest in the peninsula. In 1804, the Marquis allesley was recalled; and Cornwallis, appointed a third actually went out, but died in the following year, soon is arrival. He was succeeded by Lord Minto, who was ed, in 1813, by the Earl of Moira, afterwards Marquis of gs.

In 1814, disputes arose with the rajah of Nepaul, the borountry between Oude and Thibet. The events of this ain war were less successful during the following year; y the victorious advance of General Ochterlony, peace was ded in 1816, with cession of the contested districts, and of ountainous passes. By this new acquisition, the English

dominions were brought into close contact with the Chinese empire. But a new war with the Mahrattas was now to decide the fate of these tribes. The central parts of India were infested, in 1817, by hordes of freebooters, known by the name of Pindarees, who were endeavouring to form combinations with the chiefs of the Mahrattas. But the English prevented their junction—overpowered the single nations—annihilated the Pindarees, and obtained considerable cessions of territory. By the successful issue of these wars, the Indus became the boundary of the British dominions. Between that river and Calcutta, there were now only small states, which were either attached to the English, or too weak to raise a single standard against them. The power of the Mahrattas was for ever broken. Notwithstanding the enlargement of the territory of the Company, no alterations took place in its political constitution; the regulations introduced by Pitt continued to be the basis of its internal policy. But a change was introduced into its commercial privileges, when the charter of the Company was to be renewed in 1814. Clamours had been raised against its monopoly; and a partial restriction was now imposed upon it. The Company received the exclusive trade with China for twenty years; but the other trade was made free to all Britons, with all the harbours of the Company, in their own private vessels. Certain regulations were annexed concerning the application of the territorial revenues, and of the profits accruing from the trade. The governor-general, the governors, and the commanders of the troops, were to be chosen by the Court of Directors, but agreeably to the will of his majesty.

11. *Burmese War.*—In 1823, Lord Amherst, who had been previously sent on an embassy to China, was made governor-general of India. In the following year, the Burmese, a nation extending along the eastern shore of the Bay of Bengal, assumed a threatening position on the British frontier; and invaded a small territory under the protection of the British government. Colonel Bowen was sent against the invaders with a small force, but was repulsed with considerable loss. A few months afterwards, a considerable naval and military armament, under the command of Sir A. Campbell and Commodore Grant, attacked Rangoon, the principal seaport of the Burmese, and captured it without loss. Several engagements ensued, in which the Burmese were signally defeated, and driven into their own territories. In 1826, hostilities were renewed, when the arms of the British were again victorious; and a treaty of peace was concluded, by which the four provinces of Aracan, with Mergui, Tavoy, and Zea, were ceded to the English, together with a large sum of money, to be paid as an indemnification for the expenses of the war. But the Burmese having by various artifices eluded the terms of the treaty, an attack was made upon their head-quarters at **Mel-loon**, with complete success; and a rapid advance made upon the

capital of their empire, when his majesty of Ava was compelled to ratify the treaty, and the British army retired to Rangoon.

12. Scarcely less important was the capture of Bhurtpoor, which occurred in the same year. This was a fortress of great strength, and had been deemed impregnable. A rebellion had taken place on the death of the rajah, who had maintained a strict alliance with the British. His nephew had seated himself on the throne, in defiance of his son and rightful heir. Under Lord Combermere, the fortress was taken by storm, the usurper made prisoner. All the other fortresses in the rajah's dominions successively surrendered, and the lawful prince was established on his throne.

13. In 1827, Lord William Bentinck was appointed governor-general of India. His administration was eminently pacific, and characterized by a series of financial reforms in every department of the government. In 1833, the Company's charter expired, and further changes were introduced. The exclusive right of trade was taken away; and the commerce with India and China freely granted to all British subjects. The Company retained the political administration of India for twenty years; but all its other rights and possessions were ceded to the English government, in consideration of an annuity of £630,000, secured by a guarantee fund of two millions sterling.

14. *Afghan War.*—Lord Auckland was the next governor-general. During his brief administration, a fearful contest broke out with the Afghans. The importance of establishing a more secure line of frontier to the north of the British possessions, where danger was apprehended from the intrigues of Russia at the court of Persia, induced the governor-general to interfere in the affairs of Afghanistan, a district situated on the west of the Indus. His object was to unite the various clans under one firm government, which should be under the influence and protection of Great Britain. With this view, he resolved to depose Dost Mahommed Khan, and to place Shah Sujah on the throne of Cabul, from which he had been expelled for many years. But he appears to have been deceived in his notions of the popularity of the Shah. In 1841, an insurrection broke out at Cabul, when Sir W. H. Macnaughtan and Sir A. Burnes, the political residents, were treacherously murdered; and, in the following year, the British forces were obliged to commence a retreat under the most disastrous circumstances. This distressing march continued until the whole army was killed or captured, excepting Dr Brydon, who succeeded in reaching Jellalabad, where Sir R. Sale had successfully maintained himself. The events of this terrible campaign are so recent, and have occupied so much attention of late, that any detail of them would be superfluous. The catastrophe may be briefly stated. Lord Auckland was superseded by Lord Ellenborough. The English, under *Generals Nott and Pollock*, fought their way back to

Cabul, released their prisoners, and finally evacuated Afghanistan. The British dominions were, however, enlarged by the annexation of the territory of Sind, which secured to them the navigation of the Lower Indus. The dominion of the Punjab, occupied by the Sikhs, passed at this time, by the death of Runjeet Singh, into the possession of his son, Shere Singh, whose authority has been recognised by the British government. His position appears, however, to be by no means secure. In 1844, Lord Ellenborough was recalled by the directors, contrary to the wishes of the government, and was succeeded by Sir Henry Hardinge.

SECTION VI.

OF ENGLAND, FROM THE PEACE OF PARIS TO THE CONCLUSION OF THE AMERICAN WAR.

1. IN 1760, George III., grandson of the late king, acceded to the throne of England, in the twenty-second year of his age. His situation differed widely from that of his two predecessors. The house of Hanover had hitherto secured no hold on the affections of the people: its princes had displayed no merit to balance the defect of hereditary right; nor any personal qualities to compensate for their foreign predilections. The young king was an Englishman; his tastes and habits, for good or for evil, were of English growth. The period of his accession was one of great national joy. The brilliant success of our arms in Canada, and the conclusion of a long and expensive war on terms honourable to our country, had raised the spirits of the people, and revived in them the dormant sentiment of loyalty. Even faction had sunk into repose; whig and tory had forgotten their animosity. The very ministry which welcomed the new sovereign, appeared to have been framed upon the principle of reducing to harmony the most discordant elements of power. From this period, epochs are more closely connected with administrations than with reigns. The sovereign is changed; the government remains the same. At the commencement of this reign, the first Pitt, who had so vigorously directed the war department under George II., was still at the head of affairs. While Newcastle devoted his peculiar talent to the purchase of power, Pitt was no less assiduous in the employment of it. At the accession of George III., the national debt amounted to upwards of eighty-eight millions; and at the end of the three following years, it had increased to upwards of 138 millions. But Pitt was reckless of expense; it was sufficient for him that England was victorious at once in America, in India, in Germany; that she was the umpire of the Continent—the mistress of the sea. At this juncture, France proposed terms of peace, and suggested that all differences

subsisting with Spain and England should be settled by her arbitration. But Pitt knew that France and Spain had signed the Family Compact, and he accordingly determined to declare war upon the latter power. His counsel was rejected; and in 1761, he retired from the ministry. Nevertheless, his successor, Lord Bute, adopted the same policy: war was declared against Spain, and was successfully terminated by the peace of Paris (p. 510). With the fall of Pitt, a new order of things commenced; and, for the first time since the accession of the house of Hanover, the tory party was in the ascendant. The spirit of faction was roused from its sleep, and discontent was heard in the land. In 1760, an obnoxious tax had been laid upon the beverage of the poor, to the amount of three shillings per barrel on strong beer. In 1763, a further impost was made of four shillings a hogshead on cyder, with permission to excise officers to enter private houses at pleasure. Lord Bute, yielding to the clamour which this measure excited, resigned the seals into the hands of Lord Grenville. The press now exerted its power against the king and his ministers. In 1764, Wilkes, a member of parliament, was tried for publishing "The North Briton," and his journal condemned to be burned by the common hangman. To crown the whole matter, the king was impressed with the importance of the royal prerogative; and this impression was not checked by the governing party, so long as their own power and privileges were preserved. To such an extent was the influence of the aristocracy upheld, that, to increase their votes in parliament, more peers were created in one month than had been created during the whole of the preceding reign; and to such an extent was the prerogative pushed, that, in the language of the famous motion of 1780, "it was now necessary to declare, that the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished,"—a motion which was carried in the House of Commons by a majority of 233 to 215. But, during these events, public indignation, in another quarter of the world, had ripened into open rebellion and revolution.

THE AMERICAN WAR.

2. *Grenville's Stamp Act*.—By the peace of Paris, the British colonial dominions in America appeared to be more consolidated than at any preceding period. By means of her navy, Britain was enabled, even in times of war, to keep up communication with her colonies; and, consequently, suffered little interruption of her commerce during the periods of military agitation. The colonies of North America, extending from the Mississippi to the St. Lawrence, and in the interior, to the Alleghany Mountains, had been augmented by the cession of Canada and Florida. The matured state of these countries—their flourishing agricultural condition—their long-cherished democratic principles—their experience of growing strength, which had been tested in the Seven

Years' War, all tended to weaken their political connection with the mother country. An occasion was only wanted to prove the fact, that the tenure by which England held her colonies in this part of the globe, was never more insecure than at the present moment. This occasion was afforded by Lord Grenville. The important question, whether the British parliament had a *right* to tax the colonies—a question from which Walpole had shrunk at a period when the colonies were far less powerful, which threatened deep discontent through the length and breadth of a great continent, and might, in all probability, involve, among its disastrous contingencies, the dismemberment of the empire, and a frightful addition to the national liabilities,—presented no serious difficulty to the “small, sharp mind” of the minister of England. It was to no purpose that the colonies asserted their claim, in virtue of being unrepresented, to freedom from taxation. The whole matter appeared to the minister in a single point of view—as a question of *right*: parliament maintained the affirmative; and the result was a revolution, which was destined to affect the interests of the whole world. In 1765, a bill was passed, and received the royal assent, for imposing a stamp duty on the British colonies of America. In the course of the same year, the ministry was changed; and Lord Rockingham, at the head of a whig cabinet, came forward to reap the fruits of his predecessor's indiscretion. The colonies—especially Virginia and Massachusetts—were in a state bordering on rebellion. The stamps were burned—the revenue officers were treated with the utmost indignity—a congress was held at New-York, and a declaration published of the rights of the people—all traffic between the discontented provinces and the mother country was suspended—the mercantile houses of England were threatened with bankruptcy; everything portended a civil war, in which it was more than probable that France and Spain would soon be actively engaged. Notwithstanding these alarming symptoms, the king and Grenville were bent on enforcing the Stamp Act by the sword. Pitt opposed the measure, on the ground that the British parliament was not constitutionally competent to pass an act for taxing the colonies. “I assert,” said Lord Chatham, in 1765, “the authority of this country over the colonies to be sovereign and supreme, in every circumstance of government and legislation.” But he added: “Taxation is no part of the governing or legislating power—taxes are a voluntary grant of the people alone.” Rockingham adopted a different course: while he steadily maintained the supremacy of parliament in all cases whatsoever, he considered this particular act indefensible, on grounds of justice and expediency. In 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed; the dread of civil war, and the outcry of all the mercantile towns in the kingdom, prevailed against the influence of the court and the faction of the opposition. In the same year, Lord Rockingham received his dismissal; and a new min-

istry was formed by Pitt, then Earl of Chatham; the Duke of Grafton became first lord of the treasury. The colonies were still addressed in language of authority, and were ordered to provide free quarters and provisions for the English troops. This order was rejected by the assembly of New-York; but was obeyed by the assembly of Philadelphia. Indirect duties were imposed on articles of importation by the Revenue Act of 1767. The consequences were, that the town of Boston became the centre of resistance; and a voluntary agreement was made to decline the use of British commodities.

3. *Hostilities with America.*—In 1770, the Duke of Grafton resigned his place, and was succeeded by Lord North. Under this despotic minister, the affairs of America assumed a more serious aspect. The duties were abrogated, with the exception of that on tea. But these half measures were useless. The Americans refused to purchase the taxed commodity; and a cargo of tea was forcibly seized by them at Boston, in 1773, and thrown into the harbour of that city. Severer measures were now enacted. In the following year, a bill was passed for shutting up the port of Boston, and for prohibiting the landing or shipping of any kinds of merchandise. This was followed by acts for erecting a royal court of judicature in Massachusetts, by means of which the charter in that province was annihilated. These coercive measures led to the opening of a general congress at Philadelphia, where a resolution was made to suspend all commercial intercourse with the mother country. England was thus brought to the alternatives of making concessions, or commencing a civil war. In an evil hour, she adopted the latter. In vain did Franklin on the part of America, and Chatham and Burke on the part of England, endeavour to adjust the dispute. Nothing could be gained by war, nothing lost by concession. Even a successful war could not ensure permanent subjugation. The advantages could never balance the costs. But all argument was useless. In 1775, the provincials were proclaimed rebels; and hostilities were commenced with the battle of Lexington in Massachusetts. Reinforcements were sent from England, under generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton; and a sanguinary conflict took place at Bunker's Hill, which commands the harbour of Boston. The provincials were driven from their entrenchments, but the British purchased their advantage with a severe loss. The war spread to Canada, where the Americans met with some success under their generals, Arnold and Montgomery; and laid siege to Quebec, which was, however, relieved by Carleton, governor of Canada: the assailants were repulsed, and the siege raised. In the same year, Boston was evacuated by Howe; Long Island was occupied; and the principal seat of war was removed to New-York.

4. *Declaration of Independence.*—In 1776, Congress published their famous Declaration of Independence, by which thirteen

flourishing colonies were for ever separated from their allegiance to the British crown. *Novus sæclorum nascitur ordo*. This memorable document declared, in the face of the world, that all men are created equal; that life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, are inalienable rights; that forms of government, which are destructive of these ends, may be altered or abolished; that prudence, indeed, does not recommend a change in long-established governments for trifling causes; and that the history of mankind proves that, in compliance with this maxim, there has been a greater disposition to endure misrule than to abolish institutions of long standing. A long series of complaints against the tyranny of the British government followed. In conclusion, it set forth, that the united colonies were, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; that all political connection between them and Great Britain was, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. On the reading of this declaration, the statue of his majesty at New-York was thrown down, broken to pieces, melted, and converted into cannon-balls.

5. *Progress and Termination of the War*.—The Congress of Philadelphia declared Washington—a deputy from Virginia—commander-in-chief. Under his guidance, and since the unsuccessful expedition against Canada, the war became one of a defensive character. The English having received a reenforcement of 16,000 German mercenaries, the Americans began to look to Europe for allies. One decisive blow only was wanted to secure this object, and it was gained by the capture of Burgoyne, and of the whole of his army, by Gates, at Saratoga. In 1778, by Franklin's negotiation, a treaty of amity and commerce was concluded between France and America; the independence of the States was acknowledged by France, and war with England thus decided. Lord North, overwhelmed with dismay at the progress of his own fatal policy, proffered conciliatory measures, which the Americans peremptorily rejected as unsatisfactory and insidious. Meanwhile, a French fleet, under d'Estaing, arrived off the mouth of the Delaware; and, in the following year, the Spanish cabinet, persuaded by that of Versailles, took part in the war kindled between the two worlds. The object of these powers was to injure England; the result was the enfranchisement of colonies, which proclaimed the sovereignty of the people. In 1780, war was declared against Holland, which was already negotiating with America; and thus was the naval British power poised against that of all the western states of Europe. But the fate of America was not to be decided on the ocean, where England enjoyed an absolute superiority, but on that continent where the struggle commenced. However much the French arms, un-

der Rochambeau, and the enthusiasm of the young Lafayette, may have hastened the catastrophe, the decisive blow was struck by Washington. An expedition was undertaken against the southern states. Charleston was taken; but Cornwallis was surrounded at York-Town, and forced to capitulate, October 19th, 1781. This success gave a new aspect to the American cause, and was the virtual termination of the war. Nothing was now wanting but a change of ministers in England, to produce peace. Lord North obstinately persisted in his plan, until he was left in a minority. He retired, in 1782, and his place was taken by Lord Rockingham, whose efforts, during his brief ministry of a few months, were cordially directed to the great object of pacification. Lord Shelburn, who succeeded him, adopted the same policy. Negotiations of peace were opened at Versailles, and preliminaries signed with America, in 1782; with France and Spain in the following year, in the course of which they were changed into a definitive peace. The independence of the thirteen United States was acknowledged. The boundaries were so fixed, that the great western territory was relinquished to the Americans. Thus was a new republic founded on the other side of the ocean: a republic of Europeans, distinct from the European political system, independent by its own power and its own productions, capable of maintaining commercial relations with all the world, without the necessity of standing armies, and without cabinet policy.

6. *Case of Wilkes.*—During the progress of the American war, the ministers of England became involved, by a contest with an individual, in an important point of constitutional law. Wilkes, the celebrated editor of "The North Briton" (p. 529), had been outlawed and expelled from parliament. He returned during the Grafton administration, and was elected member for the county of Middlesex; after which, he surrendered himself to justice, obtained the reversal of his outlawry, and was sentenced to imprisonment. On the opening of parliament, the people met for the purpose of escorting him, in popular triumph, to the House. The military were called out, and some lives were lost. Wilkes vented his indignation against this act of violence through the press, and, for this second libel, was again expelled from the House. But the freeholders of Middlesex resolved to confirm their right to elect, by repeatedly returning him as their representative, until, at last, the ministry, by means of a majority of the House of Commons, determined to admit to parliament the unsuccessful candidate. This was an attack upon electoral rights, and strenuous means were adopted by the freeholders to assert their privileges. In the Court of Common Pleas, the jury found a verdict of damages against Lord Halifax for seizing the papers, and imprisoning the person of Wilkes. Indeed, it is to his resistance that England is indebted for the abolition of general

warrants. His case excited a national feeling; it influenced the changes in the administration, and is said to have indirectly provoked the American war.

7. *Riots in London.*—The year 1780 was marked by a popular outbreak in London. An act had been passed for the relief of Roman Catholics from the operation of a law enacted in the reign of William III. Fifty thousand persons, under the title of the London Association, with Lord George Gordon at their head, presented a threatening petition, signed by 120,000 persons, against the relief act; insulted several members of parliament; and tried to force the doors of the House. The chapels and residences of the Romanists were demolished; the prisons forced and reduced to ashes. It was estimated that thirty-six fires were blazing at the same time in different quarters. In a few days the riot had reached its height, and an unprecedented scene of anarchy prevailed. The military were at last called out, and several hundred persons were killed. Lord George Gordon was apprehended, committed to the Tower, and tried for high-treason; but the proofs being found to be insufficient, he was acquitted.

8. *Reform of Parliament.*—At the end of the year 1783, the coalition ministry was dissolved by the dismissal of Lord North and Mr Fox, and the younger Pitt was called to office. His attention was soon directed to a reform of the electoral system. The constitution of the House of Commons, though purporting to be founded on the representative system, had little relation to the numbers and intelligence of the people. Every kind of anomaly prevailed: decayed boroughs, with few or no houses or inhabitants, returned members to parliament; while, on the other hand, towns which had risen into importance, from their population and industry, were unrepresented. Pitt introduced a bill for transferring the right of election from the former to the latter boroughs. He failed, however, in inducing a majority of parliament to destroy an abuse upon which their political existence depended. The bill was rejected, and borough property continued to be invaluable. This state of things lasted until 1832. It seems scarcely credible that it is only twelve years since Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Wolverhampton, Oldham, and numerous other populous and wealthy communities, were allowed to return members to take the charge of their affairs in parliament; while boroughs, as Old Sarum, Gatton, Appleby, Midhurst, and many others, with scarcely more than a name, had been duly provided with members, for the purpose, it would seem, of exciting merriment on every allusion to the constituent bodies. Another curious circumstance is the disproportionate numbers of representatives which were returned for different districts and communities. The county of Cornwall returned forty-two members, while the whole of the ancient kingdom of Scotland returned only forty-five; yet the

population of the former, about thirty years ago, amounted to only 216,000, while that of the latter was nearly two millions. In each case, the representative system was a complete mockery. In the reign of James II., the representation of Cornwall was merely employed as an instrument of the court. It appears that, in 1685, the Earl of Bath put the names of the officers of the Guards in most of the charters of that county, so that the king was sure of a considerable number of votes on all occasions. With regard to Scotland, it appears equally certain that, at the beginning of the present century, thirty-nine, out of the forty-five members who nominally represented that important country, were returned by an individual—a member of the government at that period. It is of little consequence to inquire to whom the boroughs belonged: it is sufficient to know that the members of parliament were not the representatives of the people, but merely the nominees of certain persons who made a business of the system. It has been calculated that, during the great revolutionary war, and down to the year 1832, of 658 members, supposed to have been the representatives of the people of England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland, no more than 171 were returned by constituencies which were not altogether dependent on patrons.

9. *Sinking Fund*.—During the continuance of the American war, loans were contracted, by which an addition of £97,400,000 was made to the funded debt. Besides this, so large an amount remained unliquidated, that in 1786, the entire liabilities of the government amounted to 268 millions, entailing an annual charge upon the country of £9,512,232. In this year, Mr Pitt brought forward his celebrated plan for the gradual extinction of the national debt, by the establishment of a sinking fund, formed upon the model of a similar measure which had been partially applied in 1716, by Sir Robert Walpole. The fund was to be supplied by an annual surplus revenue, and to be devoted to the redemption of as much stock as it would purchase. An estimated surplus of £900,000 was, for this purpose, raised, by the imposition of fresh taxes, to one million; and commissioners were empowered, as trustees, to make an annual charge to this amount upon the consolidated fund. This annual million was to accumulate by compound interest, and to be further increased by such terminable annuities as should from time to time fall in. By this plan, the minister calculated that, at the expiration of twenty-eight years, the fund would include an income of four millions per annum; and, that at this period, the nation might be relieved from those taxes which were felt to be the most oppressive. The principle of this measure was unexceptionable; but it was liable to abuse from the continuance and enlargement of its operation during periods when no surplus revenue existed; and when, for the purpose of maintaining the fund, a necessity arose for increasing the public debt at a manifest disadvantage.

The purchases of stock made by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, from the passing of the Sinking Fund Act, to the declaration of war against Great Britain by France, in 1793, amounted to about ten millions; but, in consequence of some additional loans having been made during this period, the debt still amounted to 260 millions. Severe as was the taxation necessary for the payment of the dividends of this sum, it was insignificant when compared with the state of finance after the ensuing ten years, which terminated, in 1802, with the peace of Amiens. More than 360 millions having been added during this period to the debt, the capital stock had risen at this crisis to upwards of 620 millions, while the sinking fund had redeemed not quite 50 millions of the capital. A brief interval of repose followed, but without any reduction of this enormous burden. In 1803, war was renewed; and for thirteen years additional loans were contracted, and exchequer bills funded to an amount which added 420 millions to the capital debt, which, after deducting the sums redeemed by the sinking fund, but including the amount of exchequer bills outstanding, stood at 865 millions; entailing an annual charge upon the nation of more than thirty millions. At this period, the annual income of the sinking fund amounted to nearly $13\frac{1}{2}$ millions; but it was impossible, after the heavy expenditure of the war, to maintain the fund by taxation. Several other expedients were adopted for its ostensible support during the few years which followed; until, in 1820, a plan was introduced of borrowing from the commissioners of the sinking fund, in order to meet the deficiency in the ways and means. This experiment was, however, abandoned, after a trial of four years; and the consolidated fund was charged with an annual payment of five millions, to which the purchases of the commissioners were consequently limited. But during the five years which preceded the virtual relinquishment of the sinking fund system, the debt was increased by a sum of 120 millions, without any corresponding diminution of it by purchases effected by the commissioners; the result of which was, that, at the beginning of 1823, the unredeemed capital was greater than it had been in the early part of 1818, by upwards of 25 millions. The small abatement which has been effected during the subsequent period of peace, must be attributed to reductions which have been made in the rate of interest upon the five and four per cent. stocks.*

10. From the accession of Mr Pitt to office in 1783, to the breaking out of the French Revolution, the domestic history of England is little more than that of parliamentary struggles. The commercial interests of this country were enlarged by the recognition of the independence of the United States of America; for the infant republic, without strength or wealth, traded most advantageously with the nation which offered her the readiest har-

* These observations have been condensed from an article on the *Funds*, in the Companion to the British Almanac for 1832.

bours and the longest credit. Another result of this war was, the introduction of a new and important political principle into naval warfare—that of the *armed neutrality*. Although in its origin it belonged to the north of Europe, its influence pervaded the whole of the Continent. Its object was to maintain the rights of neutral flags. Russia was the centre of the new system, and first declared its existence in 1780. It was then demanded, that neutral vessels should sail free from port to port, and along the coasts of the belligerent powers; and that hostile property should be free in neutral vessels, with the exception of contraband articles, which were restricted to arms, and the actual necessities of war. About this time, the extension of the colonial territories of the British, awakened a spirit of discovery, which was only limited by the barriers which nature has imposed by fields of impassable ice. The three voyages of Cook contributed to this result to a degree scarcely less than the enterprise of Columbus in the New World. The islands of the Southern Ocean became as accessible as those of the Mediterranean. The sugar-cane of Otaheite, and the flax of New Zealand, became familiar articles of trade; while the continent of Australia suggested to the great navigator the locality of a settlement, which, after an experiment of less than half a century, promises to repay the fostering care of the mother country with ample recompense. In 1788, a colony was founded at Sydney, and will probably remain the most durable monument of Pitt's administration.

SECTION VI.

OF THE POLITICAL SYSTEM OF EUROPE FROM 1786 TO 1821.

1. THE death of Frederic the Great was followed by the commencement of a new period, characterized by extraordinary convulsions of the European states, and justly designated the Revolutionary Age. The successful struggle for independence of the United States of North America had kindled a spark which was ready to burst into a conflagration among the combustible materials of the Old World. Democratic ideas were diffused into the political system of monarchical states, and their extension was facilitated by a general tendency to ridicule those principles of morals and religion which the people had been taught to consider sacred. There was, at the opening of this period, an apparent stability in the governments of Europe: all attempts which had been hitherto made to subvert the European system had been unsuccessful. At the death of Frederic, the model structure which had been erected by the coolest head and hardest heart in Europe, appeared to stand unshaken and secure.

and, if an overthrow were foreseen, it was not from the West that the danger was anticipated. Yet, to a mind of deeper cast, there was evident a principle of insecurity in the very elements of strength: the power and well-being of states were estimated by the numerical force of standing armies, which, by their accurate organization and diffusive influence, had neutralized the political existence of unarmed and defenceless masses of population; the army was everything, the civil community nothing; if the former were defeated, the latter could be of no avail. Another symptom of insecurity might be observed in the general defect of constitutional government, based upon the principle of national representation; and this, at a period when many of the states had outgrown their institutions. France had lost her states-general, and had become an autocracy, with intestine commotion, occasioned by disputes with the parliament. Spain had lost her Cortes, and rested on the inquisition and the Romish hierarchs. Holland, always an anomaly, was rent by faction. Prussia, an artificial administration, had lost her master workman. Austria was planning reforms, and quarrelling with the pope. Poland and the Porte were in avowed anarchy; the fate of the former had already proclaimed that the sanctity of legitimate possession is a broken reed, when opposed by the lust of dominion. The efforts of the rulers had, in fact, been directed to the consolidation of autocracy upon the ruins of national freedom. England alone, maintaining her theory of representation, was the polar star which was kept in view in all the aberrations of this stormy period.

2. *Dutch Revolution.*—The first outbreak of the revolutionary spirit occurred in Holland, and afforded an example of the system of intervention so frequently adopted in later times. Disturbances had arisen in 1780, during the life of Frederic the Great, between the patriotic parties in the Dutch states and the Prince of Orange, who was stadtholder. Frederic declined interfering in the matter, but the disputes were fomented by the influence of England and France during and after the peace of 1783. Attacks were made on the privileges of the stadtholder, and insults offered to the Princess of Orange, sister to Frederic. The new king of Prussia made the family affair a matter of state, and, in concert with England, sent a Prussian army into Holland, under the Duke of Brunswick. The patriots, abandoned by France, were overpowered and proscribed; the stadtholdership was declared to be hereditary in the house of Orange; a triple alliance was formed for the guarantee of the office and all its rights; and Holland, in name a republic, became virtually a monarchy. By this intervention, the influence of England was again felt in the affairs of the continent.

3. The revolutionary spirit manifested itself about the same time in the Austrian Netherlands, on account of encroachments on the privileges of the states by the innovations of Joseph II.

The insurrection proceeded to a declaration of independence; but the insurgents, having no bond of union, and being deceived in their hopes of Prussian aid, were easily quieted after the accession of Leopold II. to the imperial throne. Similar commotions were experienced in several small states, as in Liege, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Geneva; in each case, it was a struggle of the democratic principle for the subversion of the existing order of things. But these events were only premonitory symptoms of the fearful convulsion which had already commenced in the leading state of Western Europe, and was destined to shake the political system of the whole continent.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

4. The remote causes of the French Revolution will be found in the despotic reign of Louis XIV. That ambitious prince strained the prerogative of absolute monarchy to its utmost limit. The nobility were abased, the parliament silenced, liberty of conscience abolished by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, the glory of arms purchased by a reckless expenditure of blood and treasure. During the reign of his successor, symptoms were felt of exhaustion and reaction. Already, in the regency, the people had acquired importance; passive obedience was succeeded by free discussion; incredulity took the place of intolerance. The insignificance of Louis XV. is notorious: wars were prosecuted which yielded little glory and entailed ruinous expense; the voice of public opinion was unheeded; the reins of government were usurped by royal mistresses; the repeated exile of parliament terminated with its triumph, while its final suppression was an act of pure despotism. Meanwhile, the unpopular alliance, contracted by the marriage of the dauphin with the house of Austria, threatened the downfall of the ruling dynasty. In 1774, Louis XVI. ascended the throne of France, with the heritage of an empty exchequer, an untractable parliament, and an inquiring populace. Louis was no despot, but neither was he a reformer: he had neither energy nor perseverance for the removal of abuses; especially that most glaring abuse, the exemption of the privileged classes from the burdens of the state. His earliest choice of a minister was unfortunate for its influence on his own character. Maurepas, a man of half-measures and of change, cared for little else than royal favour. Turgot and Malesherbes were eager to introduce the only measures which could avert the coming storm: they attacked the privileged orders, but found them as little disposed to submit to reforms as the people to abuses. Necker followed, with more deliberation, in the path of economy; he availed himself of the necessities of the court to procure the liberties of the people; but his retrenchments disgusted the courtiers, his provincial administration disturbed the dignity of parliament, which claimed for itself the monopoly of resistance. Necker retired, and reforms were aban-

done as hopeless. Courtly ministers succeeded, and hastened the crisis which their popular predecessors had endeavoured to avert. The revolution dates from this period. Calonne became finance minister in 1783, and adopted a system entirely different from that of Necker: he made a boast of prodigality; he was willing to hold his office at the pleasure of the court; he supported his schemes by every kind of corruption; but the finances were deranged, and credit exhausted; in his need, he convoked an assembly of the Notables, and proposed a land tax, without exception in favour of nobles or clergy; but this body, selected from the privileged orders, was little disposed to make a sacrifice; Calonne retired, and was succeeded by Brienne, archbishop of Sens. But the Notables were as intractable as ever; parliament refused to register some new edicts of taxation; and a demand was made for the convocation of the *States-general*, an assembly which had not been convened since the year 1614. Previously to the convoking of this legislative body, it was determined that the representatives of the third estate, or that of the people, should equal in number those of the nobles and of the clergy conjoined. The *States-general* met at Versailles, on the 5th of May, 1789, when it was decided that the three orders should sit and vote together; immediately afterwards, the third estate, in connection with those of the nobles and clergy who were disposed to join them, seized the legislative authority, declared themselves the representatives of the people, and assumed the title of the National Assembly.

5. *National Assembly*.—The first decree of the National Assembly was an act of sovereignty. By declaring the indivisibility of the legislative power, it placed the privileged orders completely under its own control. From this moment, there actually remained of the monarchy, only the name; and the abolition of feudal rights, on the memorable night of the 4th of August, established the popular sovereignty on the ruins of the old constitution. Meanwhile, acts of violence had taken place in Paris. Necker, the popular minister, had been recalled to office, and had been again dismissed. This measure was the signal for an insurrection; the arms at the Hospital of Invalids were seized by the insurgents, the Bastille was taken, the governor and many of the soldiers put to death. As an act of conciliation, Louis removed the regular troops from Paris and Versailles, and intrusted the safety of his capital to a body of civic militia, called the National Guards, and headed by La Fayette. On the 6th of October, the seat of power was changed; the assembly adjourned its sittings to Paris, whither the king, the queen, and the royal family were conducted by an ungovernable mob—prisoners to the capital. This overthrow of the ancient French institutions was destined to produce a political as well as a moral re-action on the condition of Europe. Its effects were experienced in Germany—Several German princes had pos-

sessions in Alsace, and were seriously affected by the abolition of feudal rights. Their complaints were espoused by the emperor, and a sympathy was awakened for the noble emigrants, which became dangerous for the peace of Europe. In 1791, a meeting and conference took place at Pilnitz, between Leopold II., Frederic William II., and the elector of Saxony. But there was no greater contrast than the new French, compared with the old German, mode of transacting business. No compromise was admitted, and the revolutionary leaders found themselves at this early period involved in a dispute with the empire.

6. *Constituent Assembly*.—Meanwhile the progress of the revolution was rapid. The great object of the assembly was to form a constitution, and, for this purpose, it commenced its deliberations under the name of the Constituent Assembly. Soon after the commencement of the revolution, political clubs were formed in Paris; of these, the most influential was that of the Jacobins, so termed from their meeting in a convent of suppressed Jacobin monks. This club insensibly absorbed the authority of all the rest, and controlled the proceedings of the assembly itself. During the deliberations of the assembly, Louis escaped from the capital with his wife and children, but was discovered on the frontiers of his kingdom, and brought back, a prisoner for a second time, to Paris. In 1791, the new constitution, establishing a limited monarchy and the equality of all ranks, was completed, and accepted by the king; and on the 30th of September in the same year, the assembly was dissolved.

7. *Legislative Assembly*.—On the 1st of October, 1791, the National Legislative Assembly was convened. The members of this body were entirely new, those of the late assembly being excluded from it by their own act. The Jacobins acquired the predominance, and their object was the subversion of the throne. They felt that a foreign war was necessary for their purpose; and, as Austria, since the accession of Francis II., was known to be engaged in military preparations, Louis was compelled to declare war against that power. The novelty of the transactions which were occurring in France, deranged the whole system of cabinet politics, and it seemed almost necessary that the flame, once kindled, should spread into a general conflagration. Every political relation was altered: old foes became friends, old connections were torn asunder. The cause of Louis XVI. seemed to be the cause of kings; a royal throne of high antiquity was in danger of being overthrown by constitutional forms, and a republic, ably supported by the press and national opinion, was rapidly developing itself in the midst of the old monarchical systems of Europe. The first proof of the change of relations was seen in the connection of Austria and Prussia: their united forces were placed under the command of the Duke of Brunswick in 1792; a fierce manifesto was published in the names of the emperor and the king of Prussia, and exasperated the fac-

tions of France beyond control. On the 10th of August, the palace was attacked, the king was obliged to take shelter in the hall of the National Assembly, and the fate of the monarchy was decided. Meanwhile, the Prussians had gained some advantages, and threatened the capital. La Fayette, shocked at the late proceedings, and unable to control the army, fled to the Netherlands, where he was seized and imprisoned. He was succeeded in command by Dumouriez, who checked the invaders, pursued them into the Netherlands, and gained a decided victory, which encouraged the Belgians to throw off the imperial yoke. Possession was taken of Savoy and Nice, without a declaration of war, and they were forthwith incorporated with France. But the excesses of the Jacobins at Paris had reached a fearful crisis. To break down the force of the internal opposition, the leaders of that party projected the massacre of those who were suspected to be unfavourable to the republican cause. "We must strike terror," said Danton, "into the royalists." This significant threat had a summary fulfilment. On the memorable 2d of September, the prisons of Paris flowed with the blood of its nobles and its clergy. The example spread to other parts of France, and a reign of terror was commenced which was terminated only with the death of its guilty authors.

8. *National Convention*.—On the 21st of September, 1792, the Assembly assumed the new title of the National Convention. Royalty was immediately abolished, and the Republic proclaimed. Disputes followed between the two political parties which divided the convention. The *Girondists*, so named from the department La Gironde, were republicans, and had supplied the king with ministers in the beginning of the year 1792. But after the massacres of September, they withdrew from their connection with the Jacobins, and approximated towards the constitutionalists. The *Mountain Party*, so named from their elevated seats in the hall of the convention, consisted of the deputies of Paris, and other republicans who advocated extreme principles of democracy. Their leaders were Robespierre and Marat; the former of whom inspired universal hatred, the latter universal disgust. The Mountain Party prevailed, and commenced their new tragedy by summoning Louis to the bar of the convention. He was charged with having engaged in a conspiracy for the subversion of freedom, and was condemned to death by a majority of twenty-six voices out of 721 voters. On the 21st of January, 1793, the head of Louis XVI. fell under the axe of the guillotine, in his own capital, after a disastrous reign of upwards of eighteen years. The queen was the next victim: on the 16th of October, Marie Antoinette shared the fate of her departed husband. The Girondists followed. They had formed a powerful, but inconsistent party; on the king's trial they were much divided; after that event, being pressed by the violence of faction, they were expelled from the convention; thirty-four of them were out-

lawed; Brissot, Vergniaud, and twenty more of their leaders, guillotined; a few escaped, the rest destroyed themselves.

9. *First Coalition against France.*—Meanwhile the violent acts of the convention had aroused the indignation of Europe, and a formidable coalition was created with the combined powers of Austria and Prussia. The French ambassador was dismissed from the British court, and the convention immediately declared war against the king of England, and the stadtholder of Holland, as his ally. Whatever gold and perseverance could effect, was accomplished by William Pitt. By his system of subsidies, England obtained the direction of the war. Spain, under the new ministry of the famous Godoy, afterwards prince of Peace, having vainly interceded for the life of Louis, broke with the republic, and joined the coalition. The German empire declared for war. Bavaria, Suabia, and the elector Palatine made common cause with the belligerent circles of the empire. Sardinia had already been attacked. Portugal, Naples, Tuscany, and the pope, were involved. Gustavus, king of Sweden, was preparing to lead the allied armies, when he was assassinated, and the accession of Sweden prevented. Russia was engaged with the project of a second partition of Poland; no one, however, threatened more loudly than Catherine,—or performed less. To meet this formidable combination, the convention levied 300,000 men; to maintain the revolution at home, they established an extraordinary tribunal, composed of nine persons, armed with unlimited power. The first object of the allied armies was to check the progress of Dumouriez in Belgium. But this bold general was planning schemes of personal ambition: he thought it practicable to release Belgium from the Jacobins, and unite it with Holland into a protectorate for himself; to secure the troops, march to the capital, dissolve the convention, re-establish the constitution of 1791, and place a king on the throne of France. Defeated at Neerwinden, deserted by his soldiers, and suspected by the convention, he abandoned the cause of his country, and took refuge in the Austrian camp. His example was followed by the young Duke de Chartres, afterwards Louis Philippe, king of the French. A series of conflicts took place between the republican and the allied armies; but, at the close of the campaign, the French had been again driven within their frontier, and had lost all their settlements in the East Indies, and Tobago in the West. About this time, a formidable insurrection in the south of France provoked the utmost fury of the Jacobins. La Vendée had retained its ancient feudal institutions; the principles of the revolution had not reached this department; its nobles and its clergy had not emigrated in the general panic; England sent arms and money, and three Vendean armies presently appeared in the field. The convention proceeded to pass the severest edicts against all who participated in the insurrection; the revolutionary

tribunal commenced its infamous work ; a commission was issued to punish the Lyonese revolvers, and about four thousand victims were shot or guillotined. At this time, the convention declared that *every citizen is a soldier*, and at one blow annihilated, in the leading state of Europe, the system of standing armies. A levy of the population was ordered, and the expenses defrayed by the seizure of private property, for which *assignats*, or promissory notes, were given ; the depreciation of these instruments, however, destroyed public credit in France.

10. On the 6th of April, 1793, was established the *Committee of Public Safety*, consisting of twelve members, invested with dictatorial power over persons and property. In this body, comprising such men as Robespierre, Carnot, Barrière, and St. Just, was concentrated the supreme authority of France. After the fall of the Girondists, revolutionary tribunals were instituted throughout France, and their sanguinary acts furnished daily victims to the guillotine. Scenes of bloodshed became familiar to the nation : a law with regard to suspected persons changed all the public edifices into prisons, and filled all the prisons with victims ; while the fatal axe relieved the ruling despots of every adversary. War and military tactics had acquired an entirely new aspect ; a new era was also opened in domestic policy. Already had the map of France been revised and corrected by the new authorities : the provinces were found to be too extensive in dimension, their administration too independent ; they were abolished, and the entire country divided into eighty-three departments, with new names, of nearly equal extent and population ; each department was subdivided into districts, each district into cantons. The departments were provided each with an administrative council of thirty-six members, and an executive directory of five. The districts were similarly organized, though with a smaller number of members. The cantons, consisting each of a few parishes, were electoral divisions, without administrative councils. Each department had its criminal tribunal, each district a civil tribunal, each canton a tribunal of peace. A republican calendar was adopted : the divisions of the year, the names of the months, of the days, were altered ; the hebdomadal week was extended to a week of ten days, the tenth day being the day of rest. The Convention dated their minutes, "The first year of the French Republic." The Romish religion was abolished ; the new French deities were *Liberty, Equality, Reason*, and *Nature* ; the churches were plundered ; the bells melted and cast into cannon.

11. The convention had now become an assembly of executioners. Three factions struggled for the ascendancy. The Committee of Public Safety, with Robespierre at its head, supported by the club of Jacobins, governed with absolute power. A second and ultra-revolutionary party was headed by Hebert, and supported by Chaumette, Anacharsis Clootz, and other

members of the Commune of Paris. A third, and more moderate party, under Danton, aimed at the subversion of the revolutionary tribunal and the establishment of legal government. The Hebertists were first annihilated by the temporary union of the other two factions. After this, Robespierre found little difficulty in sending Danton and his friends to the scaffold. During the four months which ensued after the fall of the Dantonists, the power of the committee was unrestricted: the government existed only by means of daily and systematic executions: the suspected fell in masses. The revolutionary tribunal was not sufficiently expeditious in despatching its victims; it was re-organized by a decree investing it with unlimited power; and extermination proceeded, during two months, by "batches" of fifty victims per day. But this state of things could not last. The convention became alarmed; their own doom stared them in the face, and they conspired the ruin of the fanatical tyrant. He was attacked before the tribunal, arrested, and brought to the scaffold, on the 28th of July, 1794, with twenty-one of his accomplices. Eighty-three others met the same fate in the course of the two following days; the reign of terror came to an end, and thousands of innocent persons were liberated from the prisons. The Jacobins were soon after suppressed by the convention, and a new constitution was proclaimed in 1795.

12. *Directorial Constitution.*—The fundamental elements of the new constitution, were, a legislative body, composed of two elective chambers, the one, or that of the 500, empowered to originate laws; the other, or that of the *ancients*, amounting to 250 members, invested with a *veto*; and an executive body, consisting of a council of five persons, clothed with an authority as great as that of the old constitution of 1791. A decree was annexed to the constitution, ordering the re-election of two-thirds of the members of the convention. This attempt was the occasion of fresh troubles. The sections of Paris wished to vote separately upon the constitution and on the decree. A contest seemed inevitable. The insurgents mustered their forces, while the convention placed a large body of men under the command of NAPOLEON BONAPARTE. A sanguinary battle took place, in which the Parisians were defeated. A new legislative body assembled, which might be regarded as a continuation of the convention, so long as it numbered among its members two-thirds of the assembly. The executive directory was then appointed by the council of the *ancients* from a list presented by the council of five hundred, and consisted of five of the regicides. And thus, after three years' duration, the National Convention closed its extraordinary session on the 26th of October, 1795.

13. *Progress of the War.*—During these intestine convulsions in the capital, the republican armies, amounting to nearly a million of men, were enabled to defy the allied powers. The

campaign of 1794 opened an access to Holland by the reconquest of the Netherlands. The allies retreated before Pichegru, Jourdan, Moreau, and Kleber; Holland was conquered, the stadtholder fled to England, and the United Provinces were changed into a single and indivisible *Batavian Republic*, thenceforth attached to France. The relations of England were considerably affected by this change: its actual participation in the continental struggle ceased, while it inherited at once the colonies and the commerce of Holland, then perhaps the richest country of Europe. The French arms were equally successful in Spain, Italy, and Sardinia. The English navy, under Lord Howe, gained some advantage on the sea, and Corsica was annexed to the British dominions. But the seeds of disunion had already been sown among the allies: the distrust existing between Prussia and Austria, which had been nourished for almost half a century by Frederick the Great, revived; besides, the treasury of Prussia was exhausted, and its contingent of troops furnished for the field by English subsidies. On the other hand, the convention determined to conclude only a separate peace, and not to put an end to the war until the Rhine was made the boundary. In 1795, peace was signed between France and Prussia, and a line of demarcation fixed for the neutrality of the north of Germany. Spain next withdrew from the coalition, which she had joined in consequence of family relations; she had nothing to gain by the war, and might be a loser. After the secession of Spain and Prussia, every exertion was made by England to hold together the remains of the coalition, and the war was prosecuted everywhere by means of subsidies drawn from Great Britain. In a few years, the sum of the national debt, and with it, the burdens of the state, were doubled. To meet the heavy expenditure of the war, Pitt extended the commerce of his country to every quarter of the globe; the annihilation of hostile trade became a principle of English policy, and the war of the Revolution became also a war of commerce. The campaign of 1795 was retarded by the secession of the allies on the one hand, and by a scarcity which prevailed in France on the other. The coalition was now reduced to Austria, Sardinia, and the southern states of Germany. To compel Austria to sue for peace, the armies of the directory, under Jourdan and Moreau, made some successful irruptions into Germany; but their career was checked by the Archduke Charles of Austria; Jourdan was defeated, and Moreau effected his famous retreat across the Rhine.

14. The principal theatre of war was now removed to Italy. The campaign of 1796 was glorious for the French arms under Bonaparte. After a series of victories, he compelled the king of Sardinia to purchase peace by the surrender of his most important fortresses. He then pursued the Austrians, forced a passage over the bridge of Lodi, and conquered the whole of

Lombardy, with the exception of Mantua. These victories decided the fate of Italy. The Dukes of Parma and Modena, the king of Naples, and the pope, were obliged to purchase peace by concession. Corsica was evacuated by the English, and placed itself under the protection of France. The revolutionary system was thus extended to Italy; and the possession of the principal fortress, Mantua, was now the point upon which the execution of the ulterior plans against Austria depended. The century had not witnessed a struggle like that for Mantua. Four times Austria attempted to send relief; four times her armies were routed. In 1797 the fortress capitulated, and the way to Austria was opened. Bonaparte seized the opportunity, quitted Italy, and, crossing the Alps, penetrated into the interior of Austria. But the grand contest for the imperial city, which seemed inevitable, was averted by a stroke of policy, the two belligerent parties agreeing to conclude peace at the expense of a third. Venice was to be the victim. This republic had enjoyed repose for a century, and had observed a neutral course in the struggle of parties: it was now to be divided between France and Austria. Preliminaries were signed at Leoben in 1797. Austria resigned Belgium, and received in exchange a portion of the Venetian territory; the remainder, with the capital, was to belong to France. While the terms of peace were under discussion, Bonaparte overthrew the former constitution of Venice, and occupied the city with his troops. He then appeared in the new character of a founder of states. He united the provinces of Lombardy, which had been ceded by Austria, into a republic, upon the model of France, and termed it the *Cisalpine Republic*. Genoa was compelled to change her government, and became the *Ligurian Republic*.

15. Meanwhile, the relations of the western states of Europe had been changed. Spain had not only seceded from the coalition, but had returned to her ancient connection with France, and declared war against England. The French and Spanish fleets united with the Dutch for the purpose of annihilating the British navy. But the Spaniards were defeated off Cape St. Vincent, and lost the island of Trinidad; while the Dutch, from their shores, had the mortification of seeing their admiral and eleven ships of the line led off in triumph to England.

16. *Peace of Campo Formio*.—Notwithstanding the diffusion of the war, hopes were entertained of pacification, when a new revolution in the French authorities broke out. The many-headed directorial constitution was soon found to be ill adapted to the national character. The minority of the directory and the legislative body were displaced, and a part of them transported to Guiana. Negotiations of peace between France and Austria were opened by Bonaparte at Milan, and concluded in October, 1797, at Campo Formio. By the terms of this peace, France retained Belgium, and extended her frontiers to the Rhine;

while Austria was remunerated for the loss of Mantua by the cession of the Venetian territory. The relations of the western states of Europe were now essentially changed. France occupied a commanding position. Geographically aggrandized by Belgium, Savoy, Nice, and Avignon, and closely allied with Spain, she had taken possession of Italy and Holland, and might confidently anticipate the cession of the left bank of the Rhine, and the consequent dependence of the German empire. The continent appeared to be within her grasp. England alone menaced her by sea. Austria was engaged in repairing the losses entailed by the recent campaigns. Russia had stood aloof from the revolutionary war, and had extended her territory by new divisions of Poland, which will be noticed hereafter. Prussia stood as the intermediate state, with an exhausted exchequer, and her frontier exposed on either side,—to the north, by immediate contiguity to Russia,—to the east, by the recent encroachments of France. Her future conduct was a problem of difficult solution.

17. *Congress of Rastadt*.—At the close of the year 1797, a congress was opened at Rastadt for a treaty of peace with the empire. France demanded the cession of the whole left bank of the Rhine, and the indemnification of the injured princes by acquisitions within the empire. By the former claim, she secured her military influence; by the latter, her political ascendancy. During the protracted negotiations, revolutionary principles made progress in Italy; the French government found it necessary to keep their armies employed. A pretext was found for entering the papal states, subverting the existing government, and proclaiming a *Roman Republic*. Pope Pius VI. was carried away captive to France, where he died in 1799. A still more arbitrary act was witnessed in the violent revolution of Switzerland. For almost three hundred years, this peaceful republic had enjoyed an inviolability, during the conflicts of nations, which bordered almost upon sanctity. But the structure which had stood firm for centuries, fell in a few weeks before a power which proclaimed freedom and equality to the world. The existing order of things was overturned, and, under the title of the *Helvetic Republic*, Switzerland was entirely subjected to French authority. From being the common barrier, she now became the high-road of Europe.

18. *Egyptian Expedition*.—The first coalition against France was now dissolved; and, by the treaty of Campo Formio, England remained the only belligerent power, unsupported by a single ally, with doubled debts, but, at the same time, with doubled resources. Lord Malmesbury was sent to France to negotiate peace; but the proposals being unsatisfactory, Pitt continued to maintain his anti-revolutionary policy by force of arms. Meanwhile the conqueror of Italy and pacificator of the continent returned to Paris with unprecedented honours, and was invited

directory to crown his victories by the conquest of England. But Bonaparte was preparing for an expedition in a very different quarter of the world. He had conceived the gigantic project of attacking the English power in India, and compensating them for their losses in the West. His independent conduct in Italy, joined to his boundless ambition, had rendered him formidable support to the government; the directory had gladly acquiesced in a scheme which was to be directed by the Great General from the theatre of their own operations.

A fleet was equipped at Toulon, and on the 18th of August, 1798, Bonaparte set sail with his army for Egypt. On his passage up the Mediterranean, he made a descent upon Malta, which capitulated, and was occupied by French troops.

He arrived safely at Alexandria, although an English fleet under Nelson, was lying off the coast. Alexandria was not only the port of the Nile, but the city of Egypt. Cairo and Suez were invested. But on the 1st of August, a decisive engagement took place in the bay of Aboukir, when Nelson annihilated the French fleet, and secured to England the command of the Mediterranean.

Second Coalition against France.—The immediate effect of the Egyptian expedition was the formation of a second coalition against France, by the means of England and Russia, the former furnishing the principal troops, and the latter auxiliary troops. The Porte took arms in consequence of the invasion of Egypt. The king of Naples was obliged to recover the Roman territories for the pope; the emperor to regain the left bank of the Rhine; the petty princes of Germany to destroy the new republics. Thus, with the exception of Prussia and Spain, all the principal powers of Europe entered into a combination to prosecute the war in concert, to admit of no truce, to demand a common conclusion of peace, and to close all harbours to French navigation and commerce. Yet the vast geographical extent over which these alliances spread, presented serious obstacles to their harmonious operation. It was no simple matter for the cabinets of London, Vienna, and Petersburg, to act in concert. Before the coalition was yet consolidated, the king of Naples commenced hostilities by expelling the French from his kingdom. But the war proceeded unfortunately for the French; the capital became a prey to the most frightful anarchy; their general, Mack, deserted to the enemy; the French possession of the city, and proclaimed the *Parthenopean Republic*. The example of Naples afforded a pretext to the directory to declare war against the king of Sardinia, who was obliged to renounce all his possessions on the continent. At the opening of the new campaign, the whole of Italy fell into the hands of the French. The congress of Rastadt rose on the 8th of April, 1799, and a single campaign, directed by Duke Charles and the dreaded Suwarrow, was sufficient to restore Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, into the hands of the Austrians. Genoa and Ancona only remained occupied by French troops.

troops. Towards the close of the year, the allies were foiled in their attempts to penetrate into France: the Russians were defeated by Massena in Switzerland, and a descent upon Holland, under the Duke of York, entirely failed. The Russians were recalled, and the coalition fell asunder.

20. *Consular Government.*—During the events of the preceding campaign, the Directory had to struggle against financial embarrassment and the decline of its own importance. Bonaparte had at this time almost annihilated the Mamelukes, and had invaded Syria; but, foiled at Acre by the exertions of Sir Sydney Smith, he had returned to Egypt. Here he was apprized of the state of things at Paris; and, leaving the command of his eastern army to Kléber, secretly embarked for France. Escaping the vigilance of the English cruisers in the Mediterranean, he landed at Fréjus on the 9th of October, 1799. Measures were immediately concerted between him and Sieyès for an internal revolution. Through the instrumentality of the Council of the Ancients, Bonaparte obtained the nomination of commandant of the city-guard, and the chambers were removed from the Tuileries to St. Cloud. The struggle was brief. On the 10th of November, Bonaparte entered the legislative chamber with a body of grenadiers, and drove out all the members at the point of the bayonet. By this act of violence, the representative system was abolished, a decisive blow was struck against the liberty which had cost so rich a price; the dominion of absolute power commenced its ominous career, and France was presently to be mustered into one vast regiment, the march of which was to be heard from the east to the west of Europe. On the 24th of December, 1799, the new constitution was proclaimed. The government was intrusted to a consul, who was to be assisted by the deliberations of two other consuls. The First Consul was Bonaparte; the other two, Cambacérès and Lebrun. The other constituted bodies were, a conservative senate of sixty members, appointed to be the guardian of the public liberties; a tribunal of one hundred members, whose office it was to discuss such forms of law as the government laid before them; and a legislative body of three hundred members, who were to give their votes without any previous discussion.

21. *Campaign of the Year 1800.*—The First Consul, after vainly proffering peace to England, prepared to crown his government with new victories. A remarkable change was observed in the nature of the proclamations: the summons to arms was no longer for the "defence of liberty;" it was now issued in the "name of honour." Holland and Switzerland had been preserved in the last campaign. A double plan of operations was now marked out in Italy under the First Consul; in Upper Germany, under Moreau. The movements of Bonaparte recall the days of Hannibal. With forty thousand men he crossed the Alps, entered Milan on the 2d of June, and restored the Cisalpine Republic.

On the 9th, the successful battle of Monte-bello prepared the way for the decisive victory of Marengo : here, on the 14th, the Austrian general, Melas, engaged the forces of Bonaparte, and the fate of Italy depended on the issue. Re-enforced by Desaix, Bonaparte routed the Austrians, who purchased a truce by resigning Lombardy and all the fortresses as far as Mantua. Thus were the fruits of a year lost in one day. Meanwhile, Moreau crossed the Rhine, and defeated Kray in several engagements. Repeated armistices were made in Germany, in consideration of ceded fortresses. At the close of the year, a great victory was gained by Moreau over the Archduke John, at Hohenlinden, and the French army entered Austria. While the old century thus departed stained with blood, the new one ushered in, at least, a hope of peace. Austria determined to lay down its arms, and a treaty was concluded between the republic, the emperor, and the empire, at Luneville, in January, 1801. All the conditions of the treaty of Campo Formio were ratified, and further concessions made to the republic. The Rhine was determined to be the boundary of the German dominions. In the following year, peace was concluded at Amiens, between England on the one side, and France, Spain, and the Batavian republic on the other. England acquiesced in the continental acquisitions of France, recognised the minor republics, and restored the colonies, except Trinidad and Ceylon. The island of Malta, which had surrendered to the English, was to revert to the order of the Knights of St. John, to be immediately occupied by Neapolitan troops, and its independence guaranteed by the leading states of Europe. Russia and Prussia declined to undertake the guarantee, unless certain modifications were added ; their refusal furnished England with a pretext for retaining the island ; and the war as will appear in the sequel, was recommenced, rather than this important possession ceded. The expedition in Egypt was terminated by the arrival of a British army under Abercrombie ; the French capitulated, and were conveyed to their own country. Egypt was restored to the Porte.

THE FRENCH EMPIRE.

22. After the peace of Amiens, Bonaparte devoted his attention to the consolidation of the power which he had acquired. A monarch in all things but the name, he kept three objects steadily in view : the first was, to render the government hereditary in his family ; the next was, to aggrandize his country by territorial acquisition ; the third, to annex to France, not a series of petty republics, according to the policy of the directorial government, but a series of petty monarchies, which should be intimately connected with his own dynasty. Under Bonaparte's dominion, the principles of the revolution gradually disappeared ; while, on the other hand, institutions which France had expended her blood and treasures in abolishing, began to revive.

The establishment of the consulate was a decided step towards the accomplishment of his ulterior views, inasmuch as it familiarized the people to the concentration of the supreme power in the hands of an individual. This point being secured, the forms and denominations of the bodies in which the public authority was invested, were to him matters of comparative indifference. An opposition was raised to his measures by the more violent tribunes, and was immediately extinguished by the summary process of curtailing that body of one-fifth of its members. A similar reduction was made of the legislative body, and for the same reason. To these bodies, thus expurgated, Bonaparte submitted a plan for the institution of a Legion of Honour, which was to lay the foundation of a new aristocracy. The legion was to be composed of fifteen cohorts of dignitaries for life. The First Consul was the chief of the legion. Each cohort was to be composed of seven grand officers, twenty commandants, thirty officers, and three hundred legionaries. The council, startled at such an anti-republican institution, evinced, by a very small majority of supporters, its repugnance to this new order of chivalry. A more popular measure, but not less indicative of a return to the old regime, was the famous *concordat* negotiated with the pope for subjecting public worship to the superintendence of bishops and archbishops. The First Consul attended the inauguration at Paris with all the pomp and ceremony of royalty. The hebdomadal week was restored, with the usual day of rest. But there were men who could not forget what it had cost their country to abolish these things. Returning from the inauguration of the concordat to his palace, Bonaparte asked General Delmas, "*Comment avez-vous trouvé la cérémonie?*"—"C'était une belle capucinade," replied Delmas; "*il n'y manquait qu'un million d'hommes qui out été tués pour détruire ce que vous rétablissez.*" By these, and other measures, Bonaparte grasped at despotic power. Already had he been nominated president of the Italian republics. In 1803, he assumed the title of Mediator of Switzerland. The modifications of the French constitution had a corresponding influence on the secondary states: the Batavian republic received a directory; the Ligurian, a doge. A new order of things began to be diffused abroad; and, during the first favourable reaction of public opinion, the unbounded ambition of Bonaparte aimed at little less than universal dominion. A plot was formed against him, Pichegru lost his life as a conspirator, and Moreau fled from France. The Duke d'Enghien, one of the Bourbon princes, was atrociously murdered. Immediately after this sanguinary act, Bonaparte reached the zenith of his glory. In 1804 he obtained the title of hereditary emperor of France, and was consecrated by the pope with regal solemnity. His brothers, Joseph and Louis, were raised to the estate of princes; his generals, to that of marshals; the liberty of the press was abolished; the government was conducted with closed doors

During the strange events of these days, a solitary voice was raised in the cause of outraged liberty—it was that of Carnot. But it was heard only to be drowned by the mad acclaim of a people who oscillated from one extreme to the other, and knew nothing of liberty beyond the name.

23. *Third Coalition against France.*—The throne of Charlemagne appeared to be now re-established. The resources of the emperor exceeded those of any potentate in Europe. His sovereignty at home was absolute, for the violent prosecution of liberty and equality during the preceding years had levelled everything; the legislative body had been weakened and silenced; the conservative senate, as it was called, was a ready instrument of tyranny. Abroad, the empire extended to the Rhine and beyond the Alps; the Italian republic was changed into the kingdom of Italy, under the immediate dominion of France; Spain, Batavia, Helvetia, and the German states on the Rhine, were kept in dependence by alliances or by fear; Hanover was occupied by French troops; Austria lay exposed to any future design. But the maintenance of this extraordinary position depended upon the maintenance of public opinion; and this, upon the development of a great political character. Bonaparte sank in the former, in proportion as he was untrue to the latter; and the steps which undeceived the nations on this point followed in rapid succession. The imperial dignity was disowned by Russia and Sweden. Alexander had acceded to the throne of the former country, and bitterly resented the murder of the Duke d'Enghien. The peace of Amiens had been little more than a suspension of arms between France and England, and it needed only the return of Pitt to power, to organize a new combination against the upstart empire. In 1805, England became the centre of a third coalition against France. It was joined by Sweden, Russia, and Austria. Prussia, pursuing her former policy, preserved her neutrality. British subsidies, and an army of 500,000 men, were to restore the freedom of Europe, without interfering with the internal affairs of France. A breach occurred at this time between England and Spain; the Spanish galleons, laden with treasures, were seized on their return from America, and war was declared between the two countries.

24. The campaign was opened by a brilliant movement on the part of the French. Bonaparte was meditating a descent on the English coast, when he was apprized that the Austrians were under arms, and the Russians advancing to join them. With a rapidity truly astonishing, he hastened to Paris, collected an army of 80,000 men, and left the capital on the following day. On the first of October he crossed the Rhine, and on the 6th entered Bavaria with 160,000 men; in a few days more, he crossed the Danube, entered into Munich, defeated General Mack at Ulm, and advanced upon Vienna. The Emperor Francis retired to Moravia; and Bonaparte entered in triumph

the capital of Austria on the 13th of November. Pursuing his victorious career, he pushed forward into Moravia, and, on the 2d of December, came in sight of the Russian army, and the remains of the Austrian army, in the plain of Austerlitz. Here the three emperors fought one of the bloodiest battles ever recorded in the annals of warfare. The allies were completely vanquished, and a fourth part of their combined armies annihilated. Austria, humbled and abandoned, was obliged to receive conditions of peace. A treaty was signed at Presburg on the 26th of December, by which the Emperor Francis was deprived of a great part of his Italian states, and the Dukes of Wirtemberg and Bavaria, allies of France, obtained an increase of territory, and their duchies were raised to the title of kingdoms. Bonaparte returned to Paris to receive the idolatry of his subjects; the title of *Grand* was bestowed on him, and a triumphal monument raised to his renown. The victory of Marengo, and the peace of Luneville, had justified his assumption of a consulship; the victory of Austerlitz, and the peace of Presburg, sealed his promotion to an empire. France forgot her revolution; and the tribunal, in which its last feeble voice was heard, soon ceased to exist.

25. *Fourth Coalition against France.*—The peace of Presburg was not universal, for Russia still continued in a state of war. Meanwhile Bonaparte employed new and important steps for extending his dominion on the continent. Ferdinand, king of Naples, was said to have violated the neutrality of this state, by the reception of English and Russian troops into his capital. A proclamation was issued on the 27th of December, 1805, declaring that "the dynasty of Naples had ceased to reign;" in the beginning of the following year, Naples was occupied by the French, and Joseph Bonaparte was proclaimed king of the Two Sicilies. In the following year, the family power was still further augmented by the change of the Batavian republic into a monarchy, and by the declaration of Louis Bonaparte as hereditary king of Holland, subordinate to the family statute. A series of secondary powers was called into existence, and bestowed in such a manner as to secure the consolidation of French dominion in the hands of the emperor. To his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, Cleves and Berg were assigned as a grand duchy; Neuchâtel was granted as a principality to his bosom friend, Marshal Berthier; the vice-royalty of Italy to his adopted step-son, Eugene Beauharnois. His sisters had been provided for in Lucca, Piombino, and Guastalla; the last of these was shortly afterwards resumed, and joined to France with Parma and Piacenza. In 1806, fourteen princes of the south and west parts of Germany united themselves into the *Confederation of the Rhine*, under the protection of Napoleon. The empire of Germany, the structure of a thousand years, ceased to exist, and Francis II. proclaimed the title extinct. Prussia had re-

ceived the electorate of Hanover as a bribe of neutrality, and had ceded to the French some territories, which were employed to augment the dominion of the family of the emperor. These advances to universal dominion caused every potentate to tremble on his throne. The fourth coalition was formed. Prussia, finding her tenure of Hanover insecure, abandoned her neutrality, and combined with Russia for the purpose of expelling the French from Germany, and obliging them to recross the Rhine. A project was also entertained of forming an association of the northern powers of Germany, as a balance against the Confederation of the Rhine.

26. The campaign was opened in October, 1806. The rapidity and precision of Napoleon's movements were again triumphant. The military monarchy of Prussia fell at the fatal battle of Jena; the Duke of Brunswick was incompetent to the command, fourteen thousand Prussians laid down their arms at Erfurth, the French army entered Berlin, and, at the close of the year, all the Prussian provinces as far as the Vistula, with their fortresses, were in the hands of the enemy. With Prussia, the bulwark of Russia had fallen. Poland lay on the frontier of the northern empire; hither Napoleon hastened to meet the army of the czar, and the theatre of war was thus extended from the banks of the Saal to the banks of the Vistula. A glorious opportunity was offered to the emperor to avenge the wrongs of Poland, and restore this unhappy country to its former integrity; but the policy of Napoleon was not sufficiently disinterested for the effort. The campaign of Poland was less rapid, but not less successful, than that of Prussia. After several bloody battles at Pultusk, two decisive conflicts took place at Eylau and at Friedland; Dantzic and Königsberg were surrendered, and the allied armies retreated across the Niemen. Peace was restored in July, 1807, by the treaty of Tilsitt, on terms favourable to the extension of French dominion on the continent. Russia, defeated, but unspoiled, renounced her influence in European politics; on her frontier was planted a rival in the duchy of Warsaw. Prussia, overthrown and dismembered, was shorn of half of her territorial dominions. Austria, after witnessing the last day of the empire, was menaced by two border kingdoms of Bavaria and Wirtemberg. Germany, already fettered to France by the Confederation of the Rhine, saw Jerome Bonaparte seated on the throne of Westphalia, at the expense of Prussia, Hanover, Hesse, and Brunswick. French princes occupied the thrones of Holland and Italy. Spain was secured by alliance. From the Pyrenees to the Vistula, French dominion, French law, French armies, proclaimed the almost universal sway of the great emperor.

27. *Continental Blockade.*—But there was one country, whose financial resources and maritime superiority perplexed the councils of the great emperor himself. The sovereignty of the sea, which

had been contested for two centuries between England and France, had now fallen to the former, whole and undisputed. To destroy the commercial prosperity of England, Napoleon issued a series of decrees, at Berlin, in 1806, declaring the British islands in a state of blockade, and excluding British manufactures, under severe penalties, from all the continental ports. This continental system was no new measure: it had been adopted by the English parliament in the case of the American colonies, in 1774; but the mode and extent of its enforcement by Napoleon were at once a result and a proof of his assumption of universal dominion. Practical tyranny was disclosed in all its odiousness in the system of customs and espionage. In 1807, the English government retaliated, by orders prohibiting every ship from entering any French port, or any port under French influence, under pain of confiscation. These were followed, in the same year, by the Decree of Warsaw, declaring that all British commodities were confiscated in the Hanseatic cities, without respect of owners. This decree was retaliated by a strict blockade of the Elbe and Weser, and an order in council, declaring all ports blockaded from which the British flag was excluded; and that all ships proceeding thither should be captured, unless they had touched at a British port, and paid a duty. This was answered by the Decree of Milan, by which every ship, which should submit to these conditions, was declared *denationalized*, and a lawful prize. Finally, by the Decree of Fontainebleau of 1810, it was ordered that all British manufactures should be burned, from Naples to Holland, from Spain to Germany. These extraordinary measures led to a system of smuggling which defied every precaution, and obliged Napoleon to relax his own decrees, by permitting the importation of colonial produce at a duty of 50 per cent. on their value; and by allowing a formal trade to be carried on, under the protection of *licenses*, contrary to his own decrees. Several of the leading states of Europe became parties to the continental system of Napoleon. The participation of Denmark was at first prevented by the bombardment of Copenhagen by the English, and the surrender of the Danish fleet. Russia and Prussia acceded, by virtue of certain articles in the treaty of Tilsit; Denmark, by its alliance; Holland, Italy, and the Confederation of the Rhine, by their political relations; Austria and Spain, in 1808; and, eventually Sweden, in 1810.

28. *French Invasion of Spain*.—Napoleon now conceived the project of securing the Spanish peninsula, and placing a member of his own family upon the throne of that important country. An expedition was accordingly planned against Portugal, the ancient ally of England, as a preliminary step to greater measures against Spain. But the policy of the Emperor led him first to secure the co-operation of Spain in overthrowing Portugal. A secret treaty was signed at Fontainebleau in Oct. 1807, by which

Portugal was to be divided into three parts; a portion assigned to Spain; and a French and Spanish army was to march against Lisbon. The word went forth, "The house of Braganza had ceased to reign." The royal family fled to Brazil, to establish a new and greater kingdom on the other side of the ocean. Junot entered Lisbon on the 1st of December. The accomplishment of Napoleon's design against Spain was facilitated by the degraded state of the Spanish court. Charles IV., the dupe of a faithless wife and an unprincipled minister, had seen and aided in the expulsion of his brother and his family from Portugal; he was now to pay the full penalty of his treachery and weakness. All was anarchy and confusion. Godoy, the favourite of the king, and the tool of Napoleon, had provoked the resentment of Ferdinand, the heir-apparent, by excluding him from all share in the government; and the prince's hatred of the minister hastened the rupture. Ferdinand was imprisoned, October, 1807, on the charge of having attempted the life of his father, but was released in consequence of popular discontent. An insurrection broke out in 1808, and spread to Madrid; the hated minister was arrested; Charles IV. abdicated, and his son was proclaimed king, under the title of Ferdinand VII. Napoleon contrived to direct the current of the revolution into his own channel. The accession of the new king, and the fall of the favourite, would, if permitted, have foiled his plans. He arrived at Bayonne, where Ferdinand was decoyed, and contemptuously informed that "the Bourbons had ceased to reign." A treaty was concluded at Bayonne, May 5th, 1808, by which Charles IV., who had protested against his abdication as forced, consigned the Spanish monarchy into the hands of Napoleon, in consideration of—the castle and park of Compiegne and a pension. The threat of "death or abdication," silenced the claim of Ferdinand, who repaired as a prisoner to Valençay. Thus had all the Bourbons been compelled to descend from their thrones, at the bidding of the deposer of kings and despot of the world. A new king was presently found. Joseph Bonaparte, king of Naples, took possession of the Spanish throne in the month of June, and was replaced in his Neapolitan dominions by Joachim Murat, formerly Duke of Berg. A junta was convened on the frontier, for the purpose of sanctioning the accession of the new monarch; a constitution similar to that of France, was proffered and accepted; and the junta was immediately dissolved.

29. *Fifth Coalition against France.*—But the Spanish usurpation was not merely a violent act against the Bourbon dynasty; it was a blind act in the policy of Napoleon. He had miscalculated, or rather, in the precipitancy of his measures, had failed to calculate, the nature of the country he had invaded, and the character of the people he had wounded. The nature of the Spanish soil, admirably adapted to the desultory operations of mountain warfare, is equally unsuited to the regular manœuvres

of disciplined armies; while the temper of the Spaniard, as displayed in the famous war of the succession (p. 498), however irritated by internal misrule, is little disposed to submit to the imposition of a foreign yoke. Above all, a theatre was now opened for the intervention of British arms, and for the display of the first efforts of that reaction which was to restore liberty to a quarter of the globe. At this period an opposition was commenced against French rule and the continental system of Napoleon. The Fifth Coalition was formed. The court of Rome had for some years impatiently borne the annexation of its provinces, by the directorial government of France, to the Cisalpine Republic, and had hoped that the complaisance of the pope towards Napoleon would secure their restoration. Deluded in his expectation, the pope acceded to the opposition; and during the years 1807-8, the Roman states became the rendezvous of English emissaries. The emperor issued orders for the occupation of Rome; the pope menaced him with excommunication; the emperor retorted by spoiling his dominions. At the same time, Holland felt the blow given to her commerce by the continental blockade; while Austria, smarting under her losses and humiliating position, was preparing for a renewal of war. But the insurrection first broke out in the Peninsula. In May, 1808, tumults occurred in all the provinces of Spain which were not occupied by French troops; juntas were erected in each province, above all, in Seville. The first great results of the insurrection were the capitulation of the French general Dupont in Andalusia, and the successful defence of Saragossa by Palafox. In August, Joseph Bonaparte quitted Madrid, and Ferdinand VII. was proclaimed. Meanwhile, the Portugese had risen in Oporto; a league was made with Spain; Junot was obliged, by the convention of Cintra, to make an honourable capitulation at Lisbon; and an English army, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, took possession of Portugal. It was fortunate for Bonaparte, at the period of these reverses, that Russia steadily observed the engagements of the treaty of Tilsit. The affairs of Spain now demanded the immediate presence of the French emperor in the Peninsula; but it was necessary first to take precautionary measures with reference to the northern states of Europe. A congress was held at Erfurt, in October, 1808. Here the two emperors concerted measures for the submission of Europe; after which, Alexander commenced hostilities against Sweden, while Napoleon hastened to the theatre of war in Spain. His arrival changed the state of affairs: by a series of victories, he recovered most of the Spanish provinces; an English army retreated, under Sir John Moore, to Corunna, where this intrepid general lost his life; Bonaparte entered Madrid as a liberator, and was planning the entire subjugation of the Peninsula, when the operations of the Coalition called his attention to another quarter.

30. *Peace of Vienna.*—A terrible example had been set in

1, and its effects were already visible in distant states. Prussia, taking advantage of the absence of the usurper in the peninsula, had established a regular militia, and was determined more to try the hazards of war. The Archduke Charles invaded Bavaria, and took possession of Munich. The Tyrol rose in arms. The Westphalians drove their king, Jerome, from his capital. Italy and Prussia were waiting for an opportunity to strike. But the vigour and activity of Napoleon again crushed all effort for liberty. Hastening from Madrid to Paris, and crossing across the Rhine, he led the troops of the confederate states against the army of Austria—Germans against Germans in the heart of Germany; defeated the Archduke at Eckmühl, so severely, that he was obliged to retire over the Danube into Austria; and entered Vienna the second time on the 13th of October, 1809. The theatre of war was now transferred to the Danube, and the Danube alone separated the two armies. On the first passage of the river, the Archduke attacked the French at Aspern and Esslingen, and, for the first time, Napoleon suffered a defeat. But the Austrians were unable to improve their advantage; the emperor crossed the river a second time, defeated his enemy at Wagram, drove them from all their positions, and concluded a truce with them at Znaim, which was afterwards changed into terms of peace. Meanwhile, an English army had landed at Walcheren, with the intention of destroying the newly-built navy at Antwerp; but, in consequence of the preparations made by the Dutch, and the unhealthiness of the climate, the expedition entirely failed. On the 14th October, 1809, the peace of Vienna was concluded, by the unconditional accession of Austria to the continental system, by the abandonment of several German provinces to the disposition of Napoleon, and by the severance of more than three and a-half millions of inhabitants from the Austrian monarchy. The period of the peace of Vienna was remarkable for the new aspect which the continental struggle assumed. The reaction against imperial France and the trade system had commenced; and, although its first effort failed, it was evident that the calm would be shortly followed by another storm. Napoleon had proceeded so far in his career, that all Europe was destined to receive his yoke; or all Europe rose, as one power, against it. There was no middle path for him. Already had he conceived the idea of annexing the Netherlands to France. The world had witnessed the spoliation of the papal states; the subversion of the papal throne, by an act of violence, was a deed, which Europe, in her stormiest days, had not anticipated. Yet the decree went forth from Vienna, commanding the remaining states of Rome to be incorporated into the French empire. The cardinals and papal ministers were persecuted. On the 5th of July, 1809, Pius VII. was arrested; after living for three years on prison allowance and on alms, he was dragged a prisoner to Fontainebleau. The year 1809 was

also distinguished by a revolution in Sweden, by the abdication of Gustavus IV., and the accession of this country to the continental system of Napoleon.

31. All Europe was now in a state of blockade. From the Pyrenees to the Wolga this quarter of the globe was reduced to the condition of one vast prison, in which the great European family was confined with the utmost rigour, and surrounded by armies of spies. All commercial intercourse was subjected to the most searching scrutiny; the police of passports established tyranny at every frontier; the severity of conscription baffled all attempts to escape the despot's service; the channels of productive industry were diverted from their natural course to replenish the imperial exchequer; labour was employed in rendering highlands accessible by canals, and Alpine districts permeable by roads; millions were annually bestowed on decorations of the capital; with the solitary exception of the peninsula of the Pyrenees, the whole continent appeared tranquil, and resigned to its destiny. At this period, Napoleon conceived new schemes of ambition; he had subverted and created thrones, deposed ancient dynasties and replaced them by his own. But the kings of his own making soon found their tenure of power no firmer than that of their predecessors. The policy of the usurper now aimed at the conversion of his indirect rule into immediate dominion; and the maxim of uniting the dependent countries with the leading state became more general and undisguised. A series of incorporations distinguished the year 1810, and proved, in the face of Europe, that the leading object of the Great Emperor was to merge all principalities in one supreme command; and that, in the execution of this project, allies and enemies, brothers and strangers, potentates temporal and ecclesiastical, were to undergo one common treatment. In February, the estates of Rome were incorporated with France; in March, Tuscany, the nominal possession of the emperor's sister Eliza, shared their fate; in May, the Italian Tyrol, taken from Bavaria, was annexed to the kingdom of Italy, which, joined to the Illyrian provinces, extended the immediate empire of the great projector to the frontiers of Hungary and Turkey. Nothing but a decree of the senate was wanted to render all these provinces French. During the same year, the principle was applied to Holland; Napoleon's king, Louis, his own brother, no longer able to bear the tyranny, abdicated and fled, carrying with him the affection of his people; and Holland, with East Friesland, was incorporated with France, as "the alluvions of French waters," by a decree of the senate. Another blow reached Northern Germany. Half of the kingdom of Westphalia, a part of the grand dutchy of Berg, all Oldenburg and the three Hanseatic cities were taken, without the ceremony of a question, from Jerome, the brother of the emperor, and annexed to France, which now extended its border to the Baltic.

32. Another, and a very different, circumstance influenced at this time the policy of the emperor, and proved that the relations of domestic life, like those of foreign empires, depended altogether on his sovereign will. Napoleon had no son to inherit his vast estate. Josephine, his first wife, the widow of Beauharnois, was divorced; and Maria Louisa, arch-duchess of Austria, became the empress of France. This marriage altered the character of the empire. The upstart revolutionist, who had agitated all Europe for the subversion of the ancient courts, changed on a sudden his feelings and position towards them, and in a corresponding degree receded from his advocacy of popular interests. Families of hereditary pride and high descent were invited to adorn his own court, and an amalgamation was attempted of the old and new noblesse. The victory of Austerlitz established an empire of citizens; that of Wagram commenced an empire of nobility. A son was born to the emperor on the 20th of March, 1811, and was immediately appointed *king of Rome*.

33. During the years 1810 and 1811 the war in Spain acquired its full extent, and was diffused over the whole Peninsula. After the peace of Vienna, Napoleon was enabled to concentrate all the forces of France in this theatre of action, on which the Marlborough of the nineteenth century had already appeared. The supreme command of the British army, aided by the German legion of Hanoverians, had been intrusted, in 1809, to Sir Arthur Wellesley; a Portuguese army was formed under general Beresford, subordinate to the commander-in-chief, and several Spanish corps under Cuesta and other generals. Against these were disposed the French marshals, Soult, Ney, Suchet, Mortier, Sebastiani, Augereau, Massena, Marmont. In 1810, the troops of France, Italy, Poland, and the Confederation of the Rhine, poured into the Peninsula. The Spanish Central Junta, no longer able to maintain its position at Seville, was removed to Cadiz, and replaced by a regency of five members; the Cortes extraordinary were summoned, and commenced their deliberations. Cadiz was besieged, unsuccessfully, by a French army. Meanwhile, the success of the British arms in Portugal, during the campaign of 1809, induced Sir A. Wellesley to advance into Spain. He was attacked at Talavera by the united forces of Jourdan, Victor, and Sebastiani; the French were beaten back at every point, but Spanish jealousy and misconduct prevented the British forces from improving their advantage, and determined the British general to limit his operations, for the present, to a defensive war in Portugal. Soult, who was commander-in-chief of the army of the south, conquered the whole of Andalusia, in 1810, with the exception of Cadiz. Massena was ordered to reduce Portugal; the fortresses of Astorga, Ciudad Rodrigo, and Almeida, were captured without any apparent wish of the British general to prevent their falling into the enemy's hands.

Then was commenced the celebrated retreat of Sir A. Wellesley, recently created Lord Wellington. For four months he pursued a slow retrograde march, Massena following him at every step, and losing thousands of his troops by famine and desertion. Towards the end of the year, Wellington took up an impregnable position within the lines of Torres Vedras, and his rival was compelled to evacuate the country. In 1812, Wellington again pressed forward into Spain, recovered the important fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, took Badajoz, gained the battle of Salamanca against Marmont, and took the city. The results of this victory were highly important. Madrid was evacuated by king Joseph; the blockade of Cadiz was raised; and Wellington was appointed by the Cortes commander-in-chief of all the Spanish armies.

34. *The Russian War.*—While the war in the Peninsula employed the best forces of the French empire, and was prosecuted with advantageous though not decisive results, Napoleon was meditating a new and formidable expedition against the great rival power of the North. The extension of French influence and dominion, and their contiguity to Russian soil, had alarmed the czar. Moreover, the policy of the Russian cabinet, ever, since the stimulus imparted to it by Peter the Great, aiming at supremacy in the north of Europe, could ill endure the pretensions of a rival who made no secret of his claim of universal empire. The alliance of Napoleon with the court of Austria was a fresh source of alarm; the investment of his infant son with the monarchy of Rome, was an undisguised assertion of his claim upon Italy. The inconvenience of the continental system, by which the exports of Russia were interrupted, was severely felt in her financial department. Already, at the close of the year 1810, a coldness had arisen between the two emperors, and the new tariff, established by the ukase of December 31st, prohibiting the importation of French products, and permitting that of colonial merchandise under neutral flags, tacitly betokened the recession of Russia from the continental system. The year 1811 was spent in fruitless negotiations, carried on in a dissatisfied and angry tone. In the following year, both parties prepared themselves for a conflict, which was to decide the destiny of Europe. The forces of Napoleon comprised the military strength of southern and western Europe: Austria and Prussia concluded alliances with him, and engaged to supply auxiliaries; neutrality would have been ruinous; every dependent or allied power was obliged to furnish its contingent. About twenty nations were united under the banner of the invader, and composed an army unheard of, in point of numbers, since the days of Xerxes and Attila. More than half-a-million of soldiers, the flower of the nations of Europe, were torn from their homes, and hurried to destruction. To meet this tide of warriors, Russia was obliged to depend on her own resources. An alliance was formed with England, but no aid could be expected from this quarter, be-

l an energetic diversion in the Peninsula. An alliance was formed with Sweden, where marshal Bernadotte, a French e, had been chosen by the states, in 1810, successor to the e. On the 22d of June, 1812, war was declared against ia.

. Napoleon commenced the campaign in accordance with sual, and hitherto successful, plan of military operation. A and impetuous assault, a rapid defeat of the enemy, the oc- tion of his capital, and the dismemberment of his territory, the successive steps which marked the direction of his aigns. On former occasions, he had reduced the power of ria by erecting the kingdoms of Bavaria and Wirtemberg; of Prussia, by the kingdoms of Saxony and Westphalia. opportunity was now offered him of reducing Russia by the ration of the kingdom of Poland, and thus securing the aid e Polish warriors in his expedition, and a safe barrier in the t of a retreat. But the opportunity was lost: the independ- of Poland was indeed recognised by the Diet of Warsaw, in a manner too incomplete to secure the restoration of kingdom. Napoleon crossed the Niemen on the 24th of , and hastened to carry the war into the heart of Russia.

enemy retreated before him, without risking a decisive e; fire and rapine, by friends and foes, marked the course ie invading army, and seemed to render retreat impossible. Russian manifesto was issued, declaring that the czar would r make peace, so long as the enemy remained within his re. Wilna was occupied on the 28th of June. The French nced with many skirmishes by way of Witepsk to Smolensk, e the Russian armies formed a junction, while the Prussian liaries besieged Riga, and the Austrians were manœuvring olhynia. Smolensk, the bulwark of Moscow, was stormed destroyed on the 18th of August. Kutusoff, invested with chief command, made one vigorous effort at Borodino to the capital. A furious battle was fought, but without de- s result. The Russians retreated orderly, the road to Mos- lay open, and in September the conqueror took up his ters in the Kremlin, the ancient residence of the czars,— imit of his expedition, the grave of his greatness.

i. The resources of Russia lay, not merely in her armies, also in the vastness of her territory, and the rigour of her ate. In Moscow, the invader hoped to find refreshment, se, and a shelter from the winter's cold; when suddenly the es burst out in a hundred places, and the vast capital reled a sea of fire. Kutusoff had ordered the conflagration, Rostopchin, the governor, faithfully executed the order. fell Moscow—a victim for the empire; for such a drama ended such a catastrophe. For a brief moment, pillage proed amidst ashes and ruins, and suddenly the army stood in ste. "The campaign may now end," was the proposal of

Napoleon; "The campaign is now beginning," was the reply of Kutusoff. Pride, and delusive hopes of reconciliation, designedly fed by the arts of Russia, forbade an instant retreat,—the only means of safety—before the beginning of the winter season. Six weeks were passed in fruitless negotiations, when it became evident that no alternative but a retreat remained. On the 19th of October, 1812, the French left the ruins of Moscow, and retraced their steps towards Smolensk, pursued by the main army of Kutusoff, and swarms of Cossacks. The horrors of a Russian winter, which neither man nor beast could endure, soon overtook the fugitives, and cut them off by thousands. Smolensk had shared the fate of Moscow, and the miserable army rushed across the Beresina in reckless disorder, under a murderous discharge of artillery; the bridges were suddenly set on fire, and twelve thousand soldiers in the rear were cut off in their retreat, and abandoned to the mercy of their infuriated pursuers. Imagination can feebly grasp the events of this disastrous flight. The emperor, quitting the scene of havoc he had created, hurried in a sledge, through Warsaw and Dresden, where he had only a few months before received the homage of kings and princes, to tell the tale of his discomfiture at Paris. The wretched remnant of his army, which had survived the harassment of a retreat of six hundred miles, found a precarious refuge in Poland; two hundred and forty thousand warriors had found a grave in Russia.

37. *Sixth Coalition against France.*—The sun of Napoleon had set in the conflagration of Moscow, and in the snow and sleet of a Russian winter, to rise no more; and great as were the deeds he subsequently achieved, yet they can be viewed only as the results of a desperate courage, opposed to the united forces of Europe. The tide of nations, which had flowed so lately from the west to the east, was about to ebb in the opposite direction. Alexander gave the signal of reaction. Pursuing the enemy beyond the Russian frontier, he entered Prussia, and summoned the nation to war. The important year 1813, which was to witness the liberation of Europe, opened with the siege of Dantzic. The Vistula was crossed in February; then the Oder; in March, the Cossacks appeared in Berlin. Prussia rose in arms at the bidding of her king, organized her army, and strengthened it by a powerful militia. Hamburg and Mecklenburg followed her example, and renounced allegiance to the Confederation of the Rhine. Thus was commenced the Sixth Coalition against France, and it was presently joined by Sweden. But it required more than the annihilation of an army, and the lamentations heard over the length and breadth of Europe, to crush the energies or mitigate the stern determination of Napoleon. Not a village of the empire would he resign, even if the enemy stood on Montmartre. By a decree of the senate, 250,000 conscripts were placed at the disposal of the emperor, and early in 1813 he was

in the field. Already had the theatre of war been transferred from Moscow to the Elbe, and the belligerent parties making active preparations on either side of the river. In 1813, the allied armies of Russia and Prussia, under Wittgenstein and Blücher, took possession of Dresden, crossed the Elbe, and pressed on to Leipsic. But fresh victories awaited Napoleon. On the 2d of May was fought the battle of Lützen; the allies were defeated, and re-crossed the Elbe. On the 21st, the result of the battle of Bautzen obliged the allies to retreat into Saxony. The emperor of Austria, who had for three years been engaged in negotiations of peace with Napoleon, offered his mediation; and an armistice of two months was concluded on the 4th of June, 1813, at Schwetzingen, between the allied armies and the French; and a congress was formed at Prague, for the purpose of negotiating peace. But peace between such foes was impossible: the confederates demanded that the French empire should be bounded by the Rhine, the Alps, and the Meuse; Napoleon would consent to nothing; Europe would no longer bear his yoke. The congress broke up on the 11th of August, and on the following day Austria declared war against France. The Coalition was thereby re-enforced: already had Bernadotte, the crown prince of Sweden, landed with an army in Pomerania; while England had concluded treaties for subsidies with Russia and Prussia; to this was added, in October, a treaty of alliance with Austria, pledging mutual aid with all their forces.

The allied forces were divided into the grand army of Germany under Schwarzenberg; the Silesian under Blücher; the northern under Bernadotte; the Austrian in Italy under Metterich; with the troops on the boundaries of Bavaria; and the Prussian and Austrian reserves in Poland and Austria. The resources of the confederates, including the Spanish, Portuguese, English in the Peninsula, could have been little less than a million of troops. Against this formidable army, Napoleon led the forces of France, Italy, Denmark, and the Confederation of the Rhine, amounting to about half the number of the allies. The operations of Napoleon were at first successful, and the allies were foiled at Dresden. But the tide of victory changed, and the marshals of France were defeated in various quarters—Mörsdorf, in Silesia; Ney, near Berlin; Vaudamme, at Dennewitz; Oudinot, in the north. It became necessary to quit Saxony; the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine seized the opportunity to throw off their allegiance to Napoleon; the king of Saxony was chased from his throne by the Cossacks, and the kingdom dissolved; the semicircle of the confederate armies pressed more and more nearly upon the common foe; he determined to retreat to Leipsic. Under the walls of this ancient city the battle was fought for three successive days, which terminated in the liberation of Germany from the yoke of the tyrant. A flight of the French ensued, similar to that from Moscow; confusion

thinned the ranks of the fugitives; the frightful scenes of the Beresina were re-enacted at the bridge of Leipsic; Napoleon fled to France, pursued by Blucher and the allies, and was attacked at Hanau by a Bavarian army, which endeavoured to prevent him from crossing the Rhine. On the 9th of November, 1813, he returned to Paris.

39. Germany was now the scene of a series of insurrections against the authority of the usurper. A general sentiment of enthusiasm pervaded the whole country; every one who could bear arms, seized them in the common cause: the plough and the workshop were abandoned; male and female, young and old, were seen upon the field. The other German princes followed the example of the Confederation of the Rhine, and joined the allies. Even before the victory of Leipsic, Bavaria gave the signal to desert; Saxony and Wirtemberg followed. In the electorate of Hesse, in Hanover, Oldenberg, and Brunswick, the legitimate governments were restored after the flight of the king of Westphalia. During the last three months of this eventful year, most of the towns of Germany were liberated from the French yoke. The zeal for independence broke out in Holland: a constitutional monarchy was founded, the hereditary claims of the house of Orange were recognised, and William, the stadtholder, was acknowledged as king. In the progress of the same year, the French arms entirely declined in Spain. Early in the spring, Wellington left Portugal, and marched against Jourdan and King Joseph on the Ebro. One desperate effort was made for the maintenance of French power in the Peninsula: on the 21st of June, a decisive battle was fought at Vittoria; the French army was totally defeated, and cut off with the loss of all its artillery; the survivors fled to Pampeluna, and King Joseph to France. Napoleon immediately despatched Soult to take the command of the army in Spain; but he was defeated at the Pyrenees, and obliged to retreat within the French frontier. Spain was now free from the usurping army, and Wellington, passing the boundary river Bidassoa, entered the territory of France. Napoleon, abandoning all hope in this quarter, concluded a treaty with Ferdinand, acknowledging him as king of Spain.

40. *Invasion of France by the Allies.*—The allies declared, at Frankfort, December 1, 1813, that “they contended, not against France, but against the preponderance which Napoleon exercised without the boundaries of his empire. They offered the emperor peace, on the condition of the independence of the French empire, as well as of the other states of Europe. They wished to see France great, strong, and happy; because its power was one of the corner-stones of the social system. They allowed France a territory, greater than she had ever possessed under her kings. But they too wished to be happy and quiet. They desired a state of peace, which, by a just balance and distribution of power, should protect the nations from the misery which they had ex-

perienced for twenty years. They declared they would not lay aside their arms, till this object was attained." If the recovery of Spain by the British, the defection of his allies, the successful revolution of Holland, and a variety of other reverses, had failed to open the eyes of Napoleon to the great fact, that his empire was rapidly passing away, this mild and liberal expostulation was not likely to meet with better success. The phantom of universal dominion had been so nearly within his grasp, that he was not yet satisfied that he had been pursuing a phantom. The memorable year 1814 witnessed the allied armies ranged along the eastern and northern frontier of France—Schwartzenberg in Switzerland, Blucher at Frankfort, Bernadotte in Belgium—while Wellington was advancing on the south-west. But, in this emergency, the energies of Napoleon were as unsubdued as ever. The mass of the people had become weary of conquest; the legislative chamber, hitherto silent and obedient to the voice of the Great Emperor, had opposed his plans, and demanded a cessation of arms, and a restoration of liberty. But this opposition was ill-timed; France was menaced along her frontier, and the challenge which had been presumptuously cast in the teeth of all Europe, was about to be answered in the very heart of the empire. Napoleon's projects had ever been, in their conception and execution, strictly his own; and he was faithful to them to the end. With a new levy of soldiers he now prepared to defend, step by step, the soil of France, and to retrieve at the same time his empire and renown. The allied armies of Schwartzenberg and Blucher crossed the Rhine, and having effected a junction in Champagne, on the 25th of January, 1814, determined to march to Paris. In February, a congress was held at Chatillon, by which the union of the allies was cemented more firmly than ever; and in the following month, a Quadruple Alliance was concluded for twenty years between Russia, Prussia, Austria, and England. During the advance of the allied armies to Paris, the fate of Europe appeared to be again endangered. Napoleon defeated and drove before him the troops of Schwartzenberg and Blucher; so rapid indeed were his combinations, so effective his blows, that the coalition seemed to be on the point of dissolution, by disorganization of its armies. Meanwhile the British troops under Wellington had penetrated as far as Bourdeaux, where the royal standard was erected in behalf of a Bourbon king; the Austrians had occupied Lyons; Murat, Napoleon's king, abandoned his master, and joined the allies; Marmont and Mortier were defeated on the 25th of March, and the road to Paris was open. The outworks were stormed whilst Napoleon was at a distance from the capital; on the 31st of March, the allied monarchs, Frederic and Alexander, made a triumphant entry into Paris, and were hailed as liberators by its fickle inhabitants.

41. *Abdication of Napoleon.*—With Paris, all was lost to

Napoleon, all gained to Europe. The allies declared, that they would treat no longer with Napoleon or any one of his family. The senate, led by the versatile Talleyrand, named a provisional government of five members, declared that the throne was forfeited by Napoleon and his heirs, and that the French people and army were absolved from their allegiance to the *tyrant*. The council for the department of the Seine demanded the restoration of the monarchy in favour of Louis XVIII. Meanwhile Napoleon marched rapidly towards Paris, to prevent, if possible, the entrance of the allies. On his arrival at Fontainebleau, on the 30th of March, 1814, he was informed of his deposition by the French authorities at Paris. After vainly attempting to secure the throne to his son, he signed an unconditional abdication on the part of himself and of his heirs. A treaty was then concluded with the allies, affirming his renunciation of dominion over France and Italy, and vesting him with the sovereignty of the island of Elba, with a pension of two and a-half millions of francs (£104,166), from the revenues of France, and a body guard of 400 men. Thus was limited a dominion, which but lately extended from Cadiz to the Baltic, to a territory which measured about fourteen miles in length, and eight in breadth; and within these narrow confines was restricted the genius of a man, who for fourteen years had kept all Europe in a state of alarm. His retreat from Moscow might have suggested to him that "from the sublime to the ridiculous there is but one step;" the proverb had now acquired a terrible significance. On the 4th of May, 1814, Bonaparte arrived at his new principality.

42. *Restoration of the Bourbon Dynasty.*—On the 12th of April, 1814, the Count d'Artois returned to France, and was appointed lieutenant-general of the kingdom. On the 23d, he signed the *Convention of Paris*, by which the territory of France was reduced to its ancient limits of 1792. On the 25th, Louis XVIII. landed at Calais, after an absence of twenty-three years, and made a solemn entrance into Paris on the 4th of May. A new era was opened for France. The strange events which had characterized the last twenty-five years were now concluded, and, in the restoration of the ancient dynasty, Europe received a guarantee that they would not be renewed. Among the first fruits of the new system were, the return of Pius VII. to Rome, of Ferdinand VII. to Spain, of Victor Emanuel to Turin. The independence of the Netherlands, of all the German states, of Switzerland, and of the Italian states, was recognised by the first peace of Paris, on the 30th of May. But the internal condition of France was far from that of repose. The people were unprepared for the revival of the old doctrine of divine right, and for the re-assumption of arbitrary power by which it was again attempted to be enforced. The senate had declared that the legislative power should consist in a hereditary sovereign, and two

of assembly; it had confirmed the settlement of property to the decrees of the revolution; and had sanctioned orders and distinctions which had been granted by Napoleon. In contempt of popular authority, Louis refused to accept the constitution, as promulgated by the senate, and issued a charter dictated by his own royal will. The emigrant nobles were driven back, and reinstated in office, to the prejudice of their former political opponents. The great landed proprietors were expelled, and the uncertainty which hung over the question of property, naturally perplexed the millions into whose hands the estates had passed. To increase the confusion, attempts were made by the clergy to restore the rites and ceremonies of the Romish faith, and retention of the church-lands was loudly demanded with excommunication. The sympathies of the army were for the general who had led them on to victory; their loyalty was gone, and men of a different stamp were produced over them. To sum up the whole in a few words, the situation of France presented, at this momentous crisis, all the elements which may be supposed to result from a discontented people, a bankrupted exchequer, an intriguing court, and a feeble undisputed sovereign.

Return of Napoleon from Elba.—This state of things did not escape the vigilant eye of Napoleon. Leaving Elba with about 1,100 men, he landed at Cannes, in the south of France, on the 1st of March, 1815, proceeded without resistance through the country, and entered Paris on the 20th of the same month. He, abandoning his yet unstable throne, had withdrawn to Brussels, and afterwards to Ghent. The emperor recalled his late orders, and restored everything to its former condition. "It seemed as if he had merely returned from a journey." But the sovereigns were then sitting in Congress at Vienna, for the purpose of adjusting the interests of the states, and restoring the balance of power throughout Europe. No sooner had they received intelligence of Napoleon's return from Elba than they issued a manifesto, declaring him an outlaw, and amenable to public vengeance. A new coalition was formed at Vienna, on the 25th of March, between England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia; it was soon joined by all the European powers, except France; and upwards of a million of men were prepared to march against France. Napoleon's government of the "hundred days" commenced from this critical period. His former power was not revived with his title: the army and the peasantry were devoted to him; but the middle class of Paris—that is, of the bourgeoisie—had become indifferent to dynasties, and desired only to work out the great political problem of national liberty. The claims of the Bourbons and that of the Emperor, dissimilar as they had ever been, were both impalatable to the intelligent portion of the community. Napoleon was sensible of the change which had taken place in public opinion, and endeavoured, under

the pressure of circumstances, to please all parties. But his measures were injudicious. His appointment of Carnot (p. 553) and of Constant to high offices of state had revived the hopes of the republicans; but his creation of an hereditary peerage alarmed this influential party, and alienated them from all his plans. Under these discouraging circumstances, Napoleon made vigorous preparations for war. But he laboured against a serious disadvantage: sufficient time was not allowed him to levy and organize the forces which France could have placed at his disposal. A British-German and a Prussian army were assembled with the utmost speed under Wellington and Blücher. On the 18th of June, a desperate conflict took place at Waterloo between the French and the army of Wellington, consisting of British, Hanoverians, Dutch, and the soldiers of Brunswick and Nassau. The events of this memorable field are of too recent occurrence to require a detailed account: it is sufficient to say that victory was fluctuating towards the close of the day, when Blücher appeared with his auxiliaries. The issue was soon decided: a general panic seized the French army, which was routed, pursued, and effectually dispersed. Napoleon hurried from the field, and reached Paris on the night of the 20th, to confirm the reports of his defeat.

44. *Second Abdication of Napoleon.*—The military career of Napoleon had been brought to a close: his political existence soon shared the same fate. On the 22d of June, a new abdication was executed in favour of his son, and was accepted on the following day by the chambers. On the 28th Napoleon set out for Rochfort, whence he made several attempts to escape to America; but, being foiled on every occasion, he surrendered to the English, “as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of his enemies.” On the 15th of July, he embarked on board the *Bellerophon*, under the command of Captain Maitland, by whom he was conveyed to the coast of England, and thence removed, without landing, to the island of St. Helena, where he was detained as a prisoner of war until his death, May 5th, 1821. Nineteen years afterwards, an official and amicable correspondence took place between the French and British cabinets, respecting the removal of the remains of Napoleon to France. On the 8th of October, 1840, the Prince de Joinville, accompanied by some of the emperor’s companions in exile, anchored off St. Helena; the body was exhumed and conveyed to France, where it was finally deposited, on the 15th of December, in the church of the Invalides.

RESTORATION OF THE POLITICAL SYSTEM OF EUROPE.

45. *Congress of Vienna.*—The extraordinary career of Napoleon had so disorganized the political relations of Europe, that the re-adjustment of the system was obviously attended by unexampled difficulties. These were, however, diminished by the

unanimity of sentiment and purpose, which prevailed among all the interested parties on most of the principal points. A common cause was recognised among the allied sovereigns and the ambassadors and ministers of the numerous states, which had suffered from the violence of the great usurper. To restore the system of Europe to its former condition was the great problem to be solved. The Congress of Vienna was opened on the 1st of November, 1814, and sat till the 25th of May, 1815. This celebrated meeting numbered among its members the emperors of Austria and of Russia; the kings of Prussia, of Denmark, of Bavaria, of Wirtemberg; the princes of the minor states of Germany; the ministers and ambassadors of the pope, of Great Britain, of France, of Spain, of Portugal, of the Netherlands, of Sweden, of Sardinia, and of various other principalities. During the session of Congress, the return of Napoleon from Elba was announced, and led to those decisive measures which have been already noticed. On the first removal of the tyrant to St. Helena, the deliberations of Congress continued to be undisturbed until the completion of its task. The principles by which an assemblage of men, differing so widely in character, was influenced at this important crisis, appear to have been in accordance with the prevailing ideas of the age. "That princes and nations do not exist to make war on each other, unless forced by necessity; that states, in forming a free political system, must mutually respect each others' independence; that the constitutions must be regulated by fixed laws; that a certain portion in the legislation, especially in taxation, must be conceded to the people through their representatives; that slavery and bondage are evils, which must be abolished; that its lawful freedom is to be given to the communication of ideas by means of the pen and the press; finally, and above all, that there is a connection between religion, policy and morality, which is to be strengthened to the utmost degree—these were maxims, either explicitly declared or tacitly acknowledged. And the influence, which the forms of social life have on political transactions, was manifested in the most beneficial way. Nothing was heard of that altercation respecting rank, which, a century before, had so clogged the proceedings at Utrecht; and the most powerful monarchs were daily seen, moving among the citizens, in the dress of private men."—*Heeren's Mod. Hist.*

46. *German Confederation.*—Germany, the central state and bond of Europe, presented, at this period, the most forlorn aspect of dismemberment. For ten years it had ceased to be a state. On every side its frontier had been contracted: the left bank of the Rhine, Holstein, and the Illyrian provinces had been severed. The interior principalities rested on no basis of fixed tenure. The short-lived kingdom of Westphalia had been dissolved. Already had a plan been concerted, by the first peace of Paris, for rendering the states of Germany inde-

pendent, and uniting them by a federal league. After innumerable difficulties, the Act of Confederation was signed on the 8th of June, 1815. By this act the sovereign princes of Germany and the free cities formed themselves into a perpetual league, called the German Confederation: their affairs were to be conducted by a federative diet with seventeen voices, held at Frankfort on the Maine; and Austria was to preside in their sessions. This bond, says the German historian, above quoted, though it was drawn less tightly than was expected by the nation, and less so than was desired by some of the most powerful parties concerned in framing it, was, nevertheless, a bond; and the hope at least remained, that time would render it more compact, when the necessity should be felt. To be the pacific state of Europe is the high destiny of Germany. The diet was opened at Frankfort on the 5th of November, 1816.

47. Austria recovered her former monarchy by the dissolution of the kingdom of Italy, by the re-conquest of the Illyrian provinces, and by the restoration of the territories ceded to Bavaria. In Italy, she acquired, by the Congress of Vienna, all the tract of country lying between the Adriatic, and the rivers Po and Tacino: the part of Mantua south of the Po, and the right of maintaining a garrison in Ferrara. These countries were merged into a Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. The royal family acquired also the states of Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and Piacenza, as *secundo-genitures*.* The Illyrian provinces were added to the Austrian monarchy, under the title of the kingdom of Illyria; and the former Venetian Dalmatia, with the republic Ragusa and the islands, as far as the Gulf of Cattaro on the eastern coast of the Adriatic. From Bavaria were regained the Tyrol, part of Vorarlberg, Salzburg as far as Salza, and portions of Innviertel and Hausruckviertel. Russia restored the ceded district of East Galicia. Thus was the Austrian monarchy a union of nations and states under a common sovereign, but without a common constitution. "It is here wise," says the German historian, "for the rulers to respect their character."

48. Prussia had lost about half its territory by the peace of Tilsit, and the adjustment of its claims was involved in difficulty. Anspach and Baireuth were ceded to Bavaria, and could not be recovered; East Friesland and some other districts were assigned to Hanover: the greater part of South Prussia and North-East Prussia were allotted to Russia. In compensation, she acquired the dutchy of Posen, almost half the kingdom of Saxony, Swedish Pomerania, Cleves and other portions of Westphalia. "Thus," says Heeren, "with about ten millions of inhabitants,

* By a subsequent compact in 1817 between Austria and Spain, it was determined that the Archduchess Maria Louisa, wife of Napoleon, should retain possession for life of Parma and Piacenza; that, after her death, they should revert to the Infanta Maria Louisa, and her son Don Carlos; and that, after the extinction of his male issue, Parma should revert to Austria, and Piacenza to Sardinia. Meanwhile, the Infanta acquired the dutchy of Luza, which in case of the succession, or of extinction, should fall to Tuscany.

and a territory divided into two great portions, Prussia came again into the number of the first powers, the territory and population of each of which generally amounted to thrice as much. If it wishes to hold its station, its spirit must supply what is wanting in mass. That it can, it has proved: with ten millions Prussia fell; with five millions it recovered itself. Happy for Europe, that it has such a state in its centre."

49. *Netherlands*.—By the treaty of Vienna, all the Batavian and Belgic provinces, seventeen in number, were united into one kingdom, and assigned to the house of Orange, with a constitutional government and political equality of all religious denominations. The boundaries were marked by a chain of fortifications, built at the expense of England in compensation for the colonies of Essequibo, Demarara, and Berbice.

50. *Poland*.—The affairs of Poland, from the period of its *first partition* in 1772, had not assumed a brighter aspect. The shadow of liberty, which had been left to this unhappy country after that infamous transaction, (p. 512) soon disappeared. In 1791 the diet proclaimed a new constitution, by which the kingdom was to be hereditary in the house of the elector of Saxony, and various useful regulations were introduced. But the jealousy of Russia, seconded by a faction of Polish nobles, to which the king himself was weak enough to accede, led to the invasion of the country, and to the horrors of civil war. A *second partition* was made between Russia and Prussia, by which the latter power gained the towns of Dantzic and Thorn; while the miserable remnant, which yet represented Poland, sank to the condition of a Russian dependency. An insurrection of patriots broke out at Cracow in 1794, and soon afterwards at Warsaw. Success for a time favoured them; but this success was intimately connected with one man. Kosciusko fell, and Poland ceased to be a nation. A *third partition* took place in 1795, and Poland again became the property of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. In 1812 the French army entered Poland on their route to Russia, when the nation proffered its services and devotion to Napoleon, with a touching prayer that the "kingdom of Poland might exist." It was in vain; and Poland continued to drag on its miserable existence. In 1815, its final destiny was decided at Vienna. It was then united for ever with the Russian empire, as a distinct state, with its own representative government. The city of Cracow with its territory was declared to be free and independent, and belonged, with the republic of San Marino, to the political curiosities of Europe.

51. *France*.—By the treaty of Vienna, France was restored to its former condition, and its boundaries were re-established as they existed January 1st, 1792, with some additions on the eastern frontier and in Savoy, as well as by the confirmed possession of Avignon. It recovered its colonies—in the West Indies, *Martinique*, *Guadaloupe*; in the East Indies, *Pondicherry*,

Isle de Bourbon, Chandénagore; in Africa, Senegal and Gorée. Malta was retained by England. The government of France, as settled at the restoration of Louis XVIII., bore a strong resemblance to that of England; and consisted of a constitutional king, responsible ministers, a chamber of hereditary peers appointed by the king, and a chamber of deputies. And thus, by the magnanimity of the allies, France emerged from a struggle, which she had herself originated, and in which she had involved every state in Europe, with her territory unshorn, with an abandonment on the part of the states of all pecuniary claim to indemnification for the expenses of the war—great and powerful, without an enemy—once more, from her locality, extent, and population, the leading power of Europe.

52. *Spain and Portugal*.—The same month which witnessed the return of Louis XVIII. to the throne of France, witnessed the re-accession of three other princes to their respective thrones. Ferdinand VII. returned to Madrid, Victor Emanuel to Turin, Pius VII. to Rome. In Spain a constitution had been formed during the war and imprisonment of the king, which rendered the crown dependent on the Cortes. Ferdinand refused to accept the constitution, and declared himself for absolutism, the inquisition, the Jesuits, and restraint on the press. But the times were altered. An insurrection of the army, January 1, 1820, kindled and fomented by the leaders of the constitution, obliged the king to submit. The Cortes, consisting of one chamber, and independent of the crown, assumed the legislative power, the king retaining only the right of proposing laws, and a temporary *veto*. But this state of things was destined soon to undergo another change. The example of Spain was quickly followed by Portugal. During the absence of the king in Brazil, an insurrection broke out, August 24, 1820, among the troops at Oporto, and spread to Lisbon. A constitution was formed by the Cortes, on the plan of that adopted in Spain, and the king, on his return, found his authority reduced to a shadow. But Portugal, like the remaining part of the Peninsula, was soon to be the scene of a sanguinary struggle.

53. *Italy*.—The duplicity and downfall of Murat, determined the fate of Italy. The treacherous Prince of Naples had, in 1813, declared against the man who had given him a queen and a throne, and made common cause with the Austrians and the English. At the return of Napoleon from Elba, he again declared for the emperor; but Austria gave him no time for preparation. After a bold but fruitless campaign of less than two months, he lost his kingdom, and eventually, after wandering about like a fugitive, was shot as a rebel at Calabria, October 13, 1815. King Ferdinand of Sicily was restored to Naples, and both countries were again united into the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, according to its ancient boundaries. But here, as in the Peninsula, the seeds of confusion had been deeply sown. An

insurrection broke out in the army, July 2, 1820; the Spanish constitution was forced by an armed power upon the king; the crown prince was appointed Regent, and a parliament was opened. But the allied powers interfered in 1821 with a declaration against the constitution; an Austrian army advanced, restored the ancient order without bloodshed, and continued in occupation of the kingdom.

54. The restoration of the kingdom of Sardinia constituted an important part of the settlement of Italy. Its territorial dominion was increased by the incorporation of the republic of Genoa. An insurrection of the army in 1821 was quelled by the Austrians, when Victor Emanuel resigned his crown in favour of his brother Don Felix.

55. Pius VII., who had been imprisoned at Fontainebleau in 1812, returned to Rome, and made a solemn entrance, May 24, 1814. The papal states were restored according to their extent before the revolution, including even Bologna and Ferrara. Austria however retained a right of maintaining a garrison in Ferrara, and of occupying a small district on this side of the Po; while France, as above mentioned, obtained possession of Avignon.

56. *Switzerland*.—In the previous restorations, the principle of adjustment was that of legitimacy. All the greater republics disappeared, with the exception of that of Switzerland. The restoration of the Swiss confederacy was secured by the Congress of Vienna, with the addition of the three separated cantons of Valais, Neufchatel, and Geneva. The confederacy has subsequently consisted of twenty-two cantons, which guarantee each others' territory and constitution, without exclusive privilege of any class of citizens. Their affairs are conducted by a diet, held every two years, alternately at Zurich, Berne, and Lucerne.

57. *Republic of the Seven Islands*.—This republic, consisting of Corfu, Cephallonia, Zante, St. Mauro, Ithaca, Paxo, and Cerigo, with their dependencies, had been erected under Turkish protection and Russian guarantee in the year 1800; its constant occupation by Russia till 1807, gave this power considerable influence in the Mediterranean. These islands had changed their possessors several times during the fifteen years of their existence as a united republic. By the Congress of Vienna they were placed under the protection of Great Britain, with the right of garrison, the assurance of a free constitution, and the acknowledgment of her commercial flag. The king of Great Britain is represented by a Lord Commissioner. Each island has its separate government and courts of judicature.

58. *Northern States*.—The northern states partook of the changes consequent upon the great convulsion of Europe. Denmark relinquished Norway, and received in compensation Swedish Pomerania, which she ceded to Prussia for the duchy of Lauenberg as far as the Elbe. She retained her constitution unaltered. Sweden and Norway were united under one sovereign.

the constitution of the former differing from that of the latter in the existence of an influential hereditary nobility. To Russia had been added all Finland in the north, Bessarabia and a part of Moldavia in the south; the Congress of Vienna gave Poland. In 1821, this gigantic power, which had already established a vast dominion in two quarters of the globe, laid claim to a footing in a third, by appropriating the north-west coast of America from Behring's Straits to 51° north latitude, and the Kurile Isles as far as Urup 45° N. lat., with prohibition of navigation on the coasts.

59. *Turkey*.—During the late commotions of Europe, the Porte had generally stood aloof. Once only, during the years 1809—1812, had she been engaged in war with Russia, when she was obliged to cede to that power Bessarabia and the eastern part of Moldavia. The insurrection which broke out in her own territories in 1821 will form part of a subsequent section.

60. *Holy Alliance*.—On the 26th of September, 1815, an alliance was concluded at Paris between the emperors of Austria and Russia, and the king of Prussia, on the proposal, it is said, of the emperor Alexander. It purported to be founded on principles of justice and religion, and arose from the enthusiasm occasioned by the deliverance of Europe from French domination. It presented a curious phenomenon in the annals of diplomacy. It was subsequently connected with the determination of these monarchs, in conjunction with England and France, to support the existing governments throughout Europe. In the Congress of Verona, in 1822, England assumed an attitude of opposition to the measures proposed by the continental powers; and, from that time, the alliance can scarcely be said to have had any effective existence.

SECTION VII.

OF ENGLAND FROM THE TERMINATION OF THE AMERICAN WAR IN 1783 TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE III. IN 1820.

1. *William Pitt*.—The connection of England during this period with the affairs of the continent, and her memorable interference in the wars of Napoleon in the Peninsula and at Waterloo, have been described in the preceding section. Her internal and domestic history alone remains to be sketched. In 1783, the coalition ministry of Mr Fox and Lord North was formed, but was almost immediately dissolved in consequence of the king's displeasure at Mr Fox's India bill (p. 523); and in the same year, William Pitt, second son of William first earl of Chatham, became, at the early age of twenty-four, prime minister of England. The character of Pitt was stamped upon the age in which he lived; his maxims were maintained during that fierce convul-

sion, which at a later period set at defiance all the old established rules of European policy. The first ten years of the present period were characterized by great internal tranquillity. The Westminster election of 1784 is a remarkable event in our popular records for its perseverance, its violence, and its general contrast to the more rapid proceedings of later times. It commenced on the 1st of April, and did not close till the 17th of May; and even then was closed only by the act of the high bailiff, who conceived that he was not justified in protracting the election beyond the period when the writs were returnable. Fox, the great political opponent of the minister, was one of the successful candidates, and a scrutiny had been demanded on the plea that he had been returned by means of many fictitious votes. Fox meanwhile took his seat for some Scotch boroughs, and brought the question of the non-representation of Westminster before the house. It was immediately mixed up with party politics. The scrutiny lasted eight months, and was expected to last two years longer, when it was decided by the house that an immediate return of the members should be made, and Fox was declared the sitting member for Westminster. The next measure of Pitt was his bill for Parliamentary Reform, a subject which he had on a former occasion (p. 534) brought before the House of Commons. He now proposed the extinction of thirty-six decayed boroughs, and, in lieu of them, the election of seventy-two members by the counties and the metropolis, as a counterpoise between county and borough representatives, without increasing the number of the members. Copyholders, as well as freeholders, were to vote for counties. On the decay of other boroughs by lapse of time, the reduction to a certain number of houses being the criterion of the decay, the members were to be transferred to populous places furnishing no members. But, as some compensation to the disfranchised boroughs, he proposed that the franchise should be purchased by the government on the application of the freemen. This measure alarmed the landed proprietors, and the motion was negatived by 248 to 174. The next important and successful measure, the establishment of a sinking fund for the gradual payment of the national debt, has been already noticed (p. 535). In 1787, Mr Beaufoy moved for a committee to consider the Corporation and Test acts; but the minister was opposed to their repeal, and the motion was rejected by nearly two to one. In 1788, the king was attacked by a mental malady, and was incapable of conducting the government. On this occasion, Mr Fox claimed for the Prince of Wales the right of exercising the royal authority in the name of the king, independently of the choice of the Lords and Commons. Mr Pitt, on the other hand, insisted that the right of appointing a regent belonged to parliament. It was finally determined that the king's person should be confided to the queen, and that the prince should be regent, but without the power of granting permanent

places, or of creating peers. The recovery of the king in the beginning of the following year, and his resumption of the regal functions, terminated the dispute.

2. The concluding portion of this period is intimately blended with the affairs of the continent; in the present section it is necessary only to point out how those affairs influenced the domestic policy of England. Scarcely had the French revolution commenced its career, than its effects were perceived in this country. Fox and Sheridan defended the principles of the revolution, protesting at the same time against the violent acts by which they were enforced. The ministerial journals inveighed against the "French rebels," while the whig papers espoused the cause of the "assertors of Gallic liberty." Associations were formed in various parts of the country to celebrate the events of that fearful time; several of them were in active correspondence with the leaders of the Jacobin club in Paris. In 1789, the "Revolution Society" of London resolved that a congratulatory address should be presented through their chairman, Lord Stanhope, to the National Assembly of France, on the revolution lately effected in that country. The anniversary of the destruction of the Bastille was celebrated in several towns; in Birmingham a circular was issued, inviting the English people to imitate the example of their Gallic neighbours; riots ensued, many houses were destroyed, and among them Dr Priestley's, together with his valuable library and philosophical apparatus.* About this time, Mr Burke joined the ministerial party, declaring his final secession from the whig party, and his friendship with Mr Fox at an end. The public mind was agitated by the press, and societies were formed for the purpose of obtaining large measures of reform, universal suffrage, and annual parliaments. On the side of the reformers appeared Mr Grey, Fox, and Sheridan, but the minister's views had undergone some change in this respect, and the effort was overruled. Immediately after this, a proclamation was issued against seditious publications, and prosecutions were commenced against their authors; while the National Assembly of France decreed that foreigners who had written in defence of the French Revolution, should be honoured with the title of French citizens. Among the English, for whom such honour was claimed, were John Horne Tooke, Thomas Paine, Dr Priestley, Dr Towers, Mr Mackintosh, and some others. The celebrated attack of Mr Burke upon the republican principles of the day, and the no less celebrated reply of Thomas Paine, in his "Rights of Man," are too well known to require any further notice. In 1792, the government adopted precautionary measures, by calling out the militia, and fortifying the tower of

* On the 12th of April, 1792, Priestley brought an action against the county of Warwick, to recover compensation for the loss sustained by him in the riot of Birmingham; when the jury awarded him £2,502:18s., being £1,619:13s.:9d. less than his claims. In 1794, Priestley embarked for America, where he enrolled his son as a French citizen.

London, as if the fate of the Bastille were impending over it. In the following year, the French ambassador at London received orders to quit England; the naval and land forces were immediately augmented; similar measures were adopted by the Dutch states; and the National Assembly declared that the republic of France was at war with the king of England and the stadtholder of Holland.

3. The belligerent position of France and England is at this period remarkable. They were now nominally at war, though they were scarcely ever enabled, until towards the close of the great struggle, to touch each other by actual hostility. In 1794, admiral Lord Howe obtained a splendid victory in the Bay of Biscay over the French fleet; but on land, though separated by so short a distance, no collision took place. Yet the abhorrence of France against this country was immediately manifested by the decree of the National Convention that no quarter should be given to the British or Hanoverian troops. Meanwhile French principles continued to influence the public mind in Great Britain. In 1793, a convention of delegates met at Edinburgh for the purpose of obtaining universal suffrage and annual parliaments; the members termed themselves *citizens*, and dated their minutes, "The first year of the British Convention, one and indivisible." In consequence of these proceedings, their papers were seized, and some of the members sentenced to transportation for fourteen years. A bill was passed for suspending the right of *habeas corpus* in cases of treason; and a general seizure of arms was commenced. But England was not committed to the same headlong career as her neighbour. The connection which had existed between her disturbances and the factions of France was broken from the period of the first trials instituted by the government; when, recovering her former position, she calmly abided the time, when she was to throw her weight into the scale, which was to adjust the lost balance of the European powers. In 1796, Lord Malmesbury was appointed plenipotentiary to the French Republic, for the purpose of negotiating a peace between Great Britain and that country, on the basis of a general restitution of conquests to all parties. But the Executive Directory declared they would not give up Belgium, although his lordship offered to cede, as an equivalent, the whole of the conquests made by Great Britain in the East and West Indies. The negotiation for peace was consequently broken off, and preparations renewed for maintaining the expenses of the war. The national debt had now increased to such an alarming amount, that cash payments were suspended, gold coin almost disappeared, and bank notes, from twenty shillings upwards, were adopted as the current medium.

4. In 1783, the prince of Wales became of age, when the sum of £50,000 per annum was granted for the maintenance of his establishment. In less than four years, his reckless extravagance

had plunged him into debt, when the greater part of his equipage was sold by auction, and £40,000 per annum were consigned to trustees for the purpose of meeting his liabilities. This arrangement being found inadequate for the liquidation of his debts, an addition of £10,000 was made to his income, with a grant of £161,000 for the discharge of his debts. A report prevailed that the prince had contracted a marriage with a Roman Catholic lady, named Fitzherbert, contrary to the royal marriage-act, which in such case bars the right of succession to the throne. Mr Fox declared the report to be false and calumnious; but the public opinion was not influenced by his assertion. In 1795, the prince of Wales had again contracted enormous debts, when the government came forward to his assistance, on condition of his marrying. A marriage took place, in consequence, in April, 1795, between him and his cousin Caroline, daughter of the duke of Brunswick. On the 7th of January, 1796, the princess of Wales gave birth to a daughter, who was named Charlotte; but the birth was soon followed by the separation of the prince and princess.

5. The year 1797 witnessed a dangerous mutiny in the channel fleet at Spithead. The sailors refused to obey the orders of the admiral, Lord Bridport, placed their officers under guard, and demanded an increase of wages and provisions. A bill was immediately passed through both houses in one day for granting nine months' increased pay to the navy; lord Howe was despatched to Portsmouth with the intelligence, and the seamen returned to their duty. Shortly afterwards, the North-sea fleet at Sheerness broke out into open mutiny, demanding still greater concessions. This act was more methodical than the former: each ship had a committee of twelve men, who determined all affairs relative to the vessel, and decided on the merits of their delegates. Vigorous measures were employed to reduce the men to obedience; the batteries of Tilbury and Gravesend were supplied with furnaces for red-hot shot. The mutineers proceeded to alarming acts of violence, blocking up the entrance of the Thames, and compelling all ships of war in the Medway and at the Nore to hoist the flag of revolt. Lord Spencer offered them a general pardon, provided they immediately returned to their duty, but the offer was rejected. All intercourse was then prohibited with the crews of the ships, under pain of death. In consequence of the vigorous steps taken by the government, several ships returned to their duty, and, a schism having arisen between the moderate and the violent parts of the crews, the former prevailed, struck the flag of revolt, and hoisted the national flag. Richard Parker, the prime mover of the mutiny, and several of his colleagues, were executed.

6. The treaty of Campo Formio, October 17th, 1797, left England without an ally. Lord Malmesbury made another fruitless attempt to negotiate peace between France and England.

The extravagant demands of the French, that Great Britain should, as a preliminary, give up all the possessions captured from France or her allies, without any stipulation for compensation; although the principle of mutual concession was admitted as the basis of the former attempt at negotiation, precluded all further treaty. Among other measures adopted this year for furnishing the expenses of the war, was the redemption of the land tax, by the payment at once of this impost for twenty years. The assessed taxes were tripled; six millions were taken from the sinking fund; four millions were raised by a loan, and the rest by a continuation of the triple assessment for another year. Fresh duties were also laid on dogs, horses, carriages, and some articles of consumption. In 1801, a change in the ministry took place, when Pitt was succeeded by Mr Addington; and in the following year, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Amiens between Great Britain and France, by which the former restored all her conquests, with the exception of Trinidad and Ceylon; the island of Malta was to be restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem. In 1803, a declaration of war was again made by Great Britain against France, and in the course of the same year England was menaced by an invasion. The French coast was crowded with troops, and the harbours of Boulogne and Vimereux filled with vessels of every description, to transport them across the channel. But the "nation of shopkeepers," as Bonaparte contemptuously termed the English, was prepared to dispute his passage, and, failing in that, to defend every inch of British soil against the daring invader, with a unanimity of purpose which, combined with British valour, has rarely failed of success. "All our fleets," says Hazlitt, "were put into requisition, from the Baltic to the Tagus, from the Tagus to the coasts of Sicily. Not a fishing-boat but seemed to have new life put into it, and to prepare for the conflict. Upwards of five hundred ships of war, of various descriptions and sizes, scoured the ocean in different directions. English squadrons blockaded every port in the channel or Mediterranean, and our cruisers were either seen scudding over the waters, like sea-gulls dallying with their native element and hovering near their prey, or stood in and insulted the enemy on his own shores, cutting out his vessels, or dismantling his forts. By land, the hubbub and consternation were not less. Britain armed from one end to the other to repel the threatened invasion. An army of volunteers sprang up like grasshoppers. Every hill had its horseman, every bush or brake its sharpshooter. The preparations were not the least active at the greatest distance from the scene of danger. Petitions were put into the liturgy, to deliver us from an insolent and merciless foe, 'who was about to swallow us up quick;' nor was there a church door in the remotest corner of Great Britain, on which was not posted a call on high and low, rich and poor, to bestir themselves in the common defence,

which, proceeding from Mr Cobbett's powerful pen, roused the hopes and fears of the meanest rustic into a flame of martial enthusiasm."

7. In May, 1804, Mr Pitt returned to office; in the same month Bonaparte was proclaimed Emperor of the French, and thus the republic of France was terminated, after a continuance of 4136 days, being only one day less than the duration of the commonwealth of England, which immediately followed the decapitation of Charles I. In July, the Emperor visited Boulogne, and an immediate invasion of England was expected. But the difficulty of effecting a passage in the face of the British navy, and the imminence of a continental war, were duly appreciated by the keen sense of Napoleon. The news that an Austrian army had invaded Bavaria was sufficient to break off the projected descent upon England. Yet, before the army of Boulogne was hurried off to the plains of Austerlitz (p. 554), the invader addressed a letter to the king of England, proposing peace. Whether he was ignorant of the ceremonies of diplomatic etiquette, or chose to set them at defiance, is of little consequence. The letter itself is characteristic. "Sir, my brother; France and England abuse their prosperity. They may struggle for ages. But will their governments thus fulfil the most sacred of their duties? And so much blood uselessly spilt, will it not rise up in accusation against them? I attach no dishonour to taking the first step in this matter. I have sufficiently, I think, proved to the world that I fear none of the chances of war." He concluded:—"May your majesty believe in the sincerity of the sentiments I have expressed, and my desire to give proofs of this sincerity." An official despatch was forwarded in reply by Lord Mulgrave to Talleyrand, acknowledging the receipt of a letter from the "Head of the French government," and declining to give a decisive answer to the proposal of peace without previous communication with the continental allies.

8. The year 1805 is memorable in the naval annals of Great Britain. On the eve of the battle of Austerlitz, which humbled before the power of Napoleon the two greatest sovereigns of Europe, the emperor received the tidings of the signal defeat of the combined navies of France and Spain. The British fleet, under Lord Nelson, sailed for Alexandria, supposing that the Toulon expedition had been destined for Egypt. Finding, however, that its true destination was the West Indies, he started in pursuit, and came in sight of the enemy off Cape Trafalgar. The French and Spanish ships amounted to thirty-three sail of the line and seven large frigates; the English to twenty-seven line-of-battle ships and three frigates. The battle began at 12 o'clock on the 21st of October, and, after a conflict of four hours, nineteen sail of the enemy's line struck their colours. About the middle of the action, Lord Nelson was wounded by a musket ball, and shortly afterwards expired. His last signal bore the words,

"England expects every man to do his duty," and the expectation was amply fulfilled. The action was gallantly maintained to its close by the second in command, admiral Collingwood. In consequence of a tremendous storm which happened after the engagement, and the shattered state of the enemy's ships, the greater part were destroyed. Four French ships were, in the following month, defeated off Ferrol by Sir Richard Strachan, and all of them captured. The victory of Trafalgar was a death-blow to the French and Spanish navies, and extinguished for ever in the Emperor's bosom the proud thought of invading England.

9. On the 23d of January, 1806, died William Pitt, the consistent foe of the French Revolution, at the early age of forty-seven. His death was probably hastened by the disastrous events of the continent, and the failure of his own efforts to counteract them. *Non sibi sed patriæ vixit*. Pitt was succeeded by his persevering opponent Fox, whose general political principles and well-known attachment to the emperor of France, afforded strong hopes of an immediate conciliation between the two countries, and eventually of the peace of Europe. A negotiation was opened by Napoleon, who consented to cede the island of Malta to the British, and proposed that each party should retain its acquisitions. But these visions were soon dispelled by the death of Fox, which took place on the 13th of September, in the fifty-eighth year of his age. The steady advocacy of liberal principles by Fox during a parliamentary career of forty years had earned for him the title of the "man of the people," and his loss was much regretted. Lord Grenville became first lord of the admiralty. A bill was introduced by the minister in 1807 for the total abolition of the slave trade, and passed both houses; and thus, after a paliametary struggle of twenty years, this disgraceful traffic in human flesh was abolished. In March, 1807, a total change of the ministry took place, in consequence of the late ministers proposing to admit Roman Catholics to serve in the army, without requiring certain oaths to be taken by them. Mr Perceval was appointed chancellor; the duke of Portland, first lord of the treasury; Mr Canning, foreign secretary; and lord Castlereagh, to the war department. In 1810, the king, having lost his favourite daughter, the princess Amelia, was so affected as to be deprived of his reason, and to become incapable of governing the country. The prince of Wales was appointed Regent, under certain restrictions and regulations, which were to cease in February, 1812, if his majesty should then be unfit to resume the regal functions. The assassination of Mr Perceval, May 11, 1812, by Bellingham, occasioned a change in the ministry, when Mr Vansittart became chancellor of the exchequer, lord Liverpool first lord of the treasury, the earl of Bathurst and viscount Sidmouth principal secretaries of state. About this time, the parliament was

occupied in investigating some reports affecting the conduct of the princess of Wales, when it was decided that the intercourse between herself and her daughter, second in succession to the throne, should be subjected to restriction. Eventually, this intercourse was entirely broken off, and the young princess was kept under the eye of her father.

10. During the years 1811—13, the attention of England was principally devoted to the war in the Peninsula, and the reverses which now attended the arms of Napoleon. In 1816, Lord Exmouth was despatched with a British and Dutch fleet to the coast of Africa, for the purpose of compelling the Dey of Algiers to discontinue his piratical aggressions on the vessels of European states, and to liberate his captives. The Algerine fleet was attacked in the harbour; most of the ships were destroyed, and the city suffered much by bombardment. To prevent its total destruction, the Dey agreed to abolish European slavery for ever; to deliver up all his slaves, of whatever nation, and all money received for redemption of slaves from the beginning of the year; and to repair the losses of the British consul, whom he had imprisoned. The number of slaves liberated was 1080; the sum refunded amounted to 82,500 dollars. This and the following year were marked by tumultuous meetings in various parts of the country, in consequence of the high price of provisions, and other causes of popular discontent. The name of Henry Hunt became notorious. An attack was made upon the person of the prince Regent. Investigations were instituted into the causes of the disturbance. To alleviate the public burdens, the prince remitted the sum of £50,000 a-year out of his revenue. The ministers announced their intention of giving up a tenth of their salaries; Lord Camden relinquished the whole of his salary and emoluments. By these and other retrenchments a saving of about six millions was effected. But the discontent of the country was not allayed by these concessions. In 1817 about 30,000 men prepared to start from Manchester for the avowed purpose of petitioning the prince Regent for a redress of grievances, and a reform in parliament. The object of this extraordinary expedition was, however, foiled by the exertions of the magistracy and the military; several of the leaders were committed to prison, and three executed.

11. The year 1817 closed with the much lamented death of the princess Charlotte Augusta, daughter of the prince Regent, and consort of prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, in the 22d year of her age. The mourning for this amiable Princess was as sincere as it was universal. A deed of separation had, several years before, been signed between the prince Regent and his consort, and the direct line of succession was now interrupted. It was, therefore, thought expedient that some of the brothers of the prince should marry. The duke of Clarence contracted an alliance with the princess Adelaide Amelia of Saxe-Meiningen; the

duke of Cambridge with the princess Augusta Wilhelmina of Hesse; and the duke of Kent with the princess Victoria Maria Louisa, sister to prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg. Previously to these marriages, the princess Elizabeth, sister to the Regent, had been united to the prince of Hesse Homberg, who had distinguished himself in the invasion of France in 1815. In the year 1818, died the queen of England, Charlotte, wife of George the third. But the year 1820 was one of great affliction to the royal family. On the 23d of January, died the duke of Kent, second brother of the prince Regent, leaving an infant daughter, Alexandrina Victoria, presumptive heiress to the throne. And on the 29th of the same month, his majesty George III. expired, in the eighty-second year of his age, after a reign of sixty years. During the last nine years of his life, he had been blind, deprived of reason, and, consequently, entirely separated from the affairs of government.

AFFAIRS OF IRELAND.

12. *Irish Independence.*—The appropriation question (p. 495), which occurred in 1754, during the reign of George II., was not a mere parliamentary struggle of form and privilege; it was an indication of a spirit of independence which had begun to pervade the Irish nation. One of its immediate effects was the increased importance of the parliament: in 1754 a borough sold for three times as much as was given for it in 1750. On the death of George II., the parliament, which had continued to sit during his entire reign—a period of thirty-three years—was dissolved, another was summoned, and the first eight years of the new reign were devoted to the grand measure of a Septennial Bill. Eventually, a bill was passed for limiting the duration of Irish parliaments to eight years; and one of the first acts of the first octennial parliament, in 1769, was the refusal of the commons to proceed with a money bill, because it had not originated in their house.* The trade of Ireland, especially its manufacture of wool, had been for many years depressed by prohibitory acts of the British parliament. Remonstrance having failed, the Irish people in 1778 commenced their "Volunteer Institution," and proceeded to form some volunteer corps in various parts of the country, in anticipation of local exigencies. In consequence of this a bill was brought in, in 1779, by Lord North for permitting the exportation of Irish wool to any part of Europe, and for repealing several restrictions upon other articles of commerce. But this concession of expediency failed in producing the desired

* By the operation of Poyning's celebrated statute, passed in the reign of Henry VII., the authority of the English government was established in Ireland. All the former laws of England were made to be of force in Ireland; and no bill could be introduced into the Irish parliament, unless it had previously received the sanction of the council of England. Hume states that the latter clause, which seems calculated for ensuring the dominion of the English, was really granted at the desire of the Irish commons, who intended, by that means, to secure themselves from the tyranny of their lords, particularly of such lieutenants or deputies as were of Irish birth.

effect. A deeper thought had taken possession of the Irish mind, and the question now to be solved affected the right of the English to control the Irish parliament. The popular faith soon found a voice in the representative body. In 1780, Grattan moved the house of commons, in one of his greatest speeches, "that no power on earth, save the King, Lords, and Commons of Ireland, has a right to make laws for Ireland." In 1782 took place the famous "Dungannon Convention." On the 15th of February two hundred armed delegates, the representatives of a hundred and forty-three corps of Ulster volunteers, met at Dungannon, and unanimously resolved that the claim of England to make laws for Ireland, is "unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance." The substance of this resolution having been moved and carried in the house of commons, the British parliament concurred in the immediate repeal of the act of the sixth of George I., declaratory of the right of Great Britain to legislate for Ireland; and Ireland declared herself an Independent Nation.

13. But the independence of Ireland was not felt to be secured by the repeal of a merely *declaratory* act. The nation became suspicious. Its murmur was, "*Timeo Danaos, et dona ferentes*." The year 1783 witnessed a grand National Convention of the Volunteer delegates at Dublin, for the purification and reform of the parliament of aristocratic, ministerial, and corporation nominees. In three weeks the Convention completed its reform bill, despatched it to the house of commons, and voted their sittings permanent until its fate should be decided. The scene in parliament was almost terrific. It was uproar, clamour, violent menace, and furious recrimination. The house finally determined to maintain its privileges against any encroachments whatever; the Grand National Convention exploded; and the Volunteer Institution received its first and fatal blow. Ireland was now left in the hands of her parliament; and a British majority, secured by unblushing venality, became the essential condition of the integrity of the empire. In 1785, the Commercial Propositions of Mr Pitt, for regulating trade and navigation in Great Britain and Ireland, evinced a strong disposition on the part of the British parliament to return to the former state of things, and were characterized by Grattan as an "incipient and creeping union; a virtual union, establishing one will in the general concerns of commerce and navigation, and reposing that will in the parliament of Great Britain." The majority in favour of Pitt's measure was so small, that the plan was abandoned, and the nationality of Ireland was still a reality. In 1789, another manifestation of independence was exhibited on the Regency question. The British parliament had incurred the displeasure of the prince of Wales, by restricting him in the right of granting pensions and peerages. The Irish parliament determined to bid high for royal favour, and voted an address, requesting the Prince to "exercise and administer all regal powers and prerogatives to

the crown and government thereof belonging," during the continuation of his majesty's indisposition. But the recovery of his majesty foiled this patriotic effort, while, in the minds of the king and his minister, the idea of a legislative union began to acquire a form and consistency.

14. *Irish Rebellion.*—In 1795, Earl Fitzwilliam was appointed viceroy of Ireland, and was received with enthusiasm by all classes of the Irish people. Early in this year, Grattan brought in a Roman Catholic Relief bill. The viceroy was recalled, and replaced by Lord Camden. Popular discontent immediately manifested itself in the organization of the United Irishmen,—a party which bound itself to unity of purpose by an oath of secrecy and fidelity, and pledged itself to emancipation and reform. The tempest was gathering. For the maintenance of the protestant ascendancy, the Orange Association arose into existence, and Ireland became a scene of consternation and bloodshed. The principles of the French Revolution had for some years been diffused among the Irish people. In 1796, Theobald Wolfe Tone repaired to France, with the intention of interesting the Executive Directory in his project for the dismemberment of the British empire. His plan was entertained; and an expedition consisting of 17 ships of the line, 13 frigates, 7 corvettes, and 6 transports, sailed, on the 16th of December, under general Hoche, from Brest harbour. Of this armament, thirty-five ships reached Bantry Bay, where they were separated by a hurricane, and obliged to return to France. In the following year, a second expedition to Ireland was prepared at the Texel; but the mouth of the river was blockaded by Admiral Duncan, provisions failed, the troops were obliged to disembark, and the project was abandoned. In the year 1798, a rebellion broke out and extended itself to several counties in Ireland; the standard of rebellion was hoisted at Wexford, in the month of May. A spirit of military ardour seemed to pervade Great Britain; all ranks eagerly formed themselves into Volunteer corps, and 12,000 militia were sent over to check the progress of the insurrection. The details of the disastrous and sanguinary war which ensued, are too revolting for recital. A decisive victory was finally obtained by the royal army at Vinegar Hill, and on the 12th of July the rebellion was subdued. Several of the leaders were executed at Dublin; at Wexford, sixty-five persons were brought to the scaffold. A French expedition landed in August at Killala, under General Humbert. But the promised aid arrived too late. The decisive blow had been struck. The French commander-in-chief was obliged to surrender; the Irish who had joined him, were refused quarter, and 500 were slain in pursuit. In this unfortunate rebellion it has been calculated that 30,000 lives were lost, and property destroyed to the amount of three millions of pounds sterling.

15. *Irish Union.*—In consequence of a message from the king,

to both houses of parliament, in January 1799, recommending them to take into consideration the necessity of a union with Ireland, in order to defeat the designs of the enemies of both countries to produce a separation, Mr Pitt proposed that the two islands should be united into one kingdom, by the name of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; to be represented by one and the same parliament, but without any alteration of the established laws, civil or ecclesiastical, of either country. The Irish parliament rejected the proposition by a majority of 111 against 106. In January 1800, the subject was brought before the Irish parliament by lord Castlereagh, secretary to the lord lieutenant, and, after a violent debate, was carried by a majority of 158 against 115. A bill was then passed, declaring that, from and after January 1, 1801, the two countries should be united; that the imperial parliament should be held in London; and that Ireland should be represented in it by four ecclesiastical, and twenty-eight temporal peers; and in the commons by one hundred members, which were to be elected as usual.

SECTION VIII.

CONTEMPORARY HISTORY OF THE PERIOD AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.

1. *Great Britain.*—The history of Great Britain, since the Congress of Vienna, is marked by few events of stirring interest. On the 31st of January, 1820, the prince Regent, who had for several years been virtually the sovereign of the country, acceded to the throne as George IV. In the following month a nefarious plot was discovered, the purpose of which was to assassinate his majesty's ministers, and overthrow the government. The leaders of the plot were Thistlewood, formerly a subaltern officer in a West-India regiment, and four persons of a lower condition, named Ings, Davison, Tidd, and Brunt. Their meetings were held in Cato Street, Edgeware Road. Their first blow was to be directed against the ministers, when engaged at a cabinet dinner at the house of lord Harrowby in Grosvenor-Square. The various barracks were then to be surprised, the arms seized, and the metropolis to be fired in several places. But, information having been conveyed to lord Harrowby by a government spy, named Edwards, the conspirators were surprised and brought to trial; the five leaders were executed, and five others transported for the term of their lives. Symptoms of disaffection occurred about the same time in various parts of the country, and prosecutions were instituted against Sir Francis Burdett, Sir Charles Wolseley, Mr Henry Hunt, and others, for seditious and libellous aspersions on the government, and for exciting commotions and conspiracy.

2. The attention of the country was now occupied for several months, and considerable agitation occasioned, by the institution of parliamentary proceedings against her majesty, Queen Caroline. The differences which had existed between herself, when princess of Wales, and the prince Regent, had induced her to leave England for the continent. On the accession of her husband to the throne, she assumed the title of Queen of England, and demanded to be recognised in that capacity. But certain rumours of her conduct, when abroad, determined the king and his ministers to refuse her request. It was proposed that she should receive £50,000 a-year, and relinquish the title and all the rights and privileges of a queen. The proposition was rejected; and the consequence was, that lord Liverpool brought into the house of lords "a bill of pains and penalties," bearing for title, "An act to deprive her majesty, queen Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, of the title, prerogatives, rights, privileges, and exemptions of Queen Consort of this realm, and to dissolve the marriage between his majesty and the said Caroline Amelia Elizabeth." The trial began on the 17th of August, 1820, and occupied about ten weeks. On the division for the second reading of the bill, the numbers were, 123 in favour of the second reading, and 95 against it. The third and last reading was fixed for the 10th of November, and was carried by a majority of only nine, many of those who had voted for the second reading, having declined to support the bill with the divorce clause retained in it. The sentiments of the house being so nearly balanced, the ministers determined to abandon the measure. The coronation of George IV. having been fixed for the 19th of July, 1821, the queen now claimed the right of being crowned with his majesty. The claim was rejected, and the health of the queen sank under the mortification to which she was subjected. On the 7th of August she expired.

3. In the year 1824, the state of Ireland occasioned alarm to the government. A self-constituted body, entitled the "Catholic Association," rose into existence, denouncing the injustice of imposing upon the whole Irish people a tithe-tax in support of an establishment, the religion of which was not acknowledged by a very great majority of them; and demanding a voluntary contribution, under the name of the "Catholic rent," for the support of the clergy who professed the Romish religion. In 1828, a bill was introduced by Lord John Russell for the repeal of the test and corporation acts; it passed both houses, and prepared the way for the success of the long-agitated question of Catholic emancipation. In the beginning of this year, the duke of Wellington was appointed premier, and the Catholic association redoubled its exertions. Mr O'Connell appeared as the champion of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, and was elected as a member for the county of Clare. His return was for the present opposed, but it was evident that the object of the

association was daily assuming a greater consistency. The protestants of Ireland were alarmed. Orange-lodges, and societies called Brunswick clubs, were organized. The country appeared to be threatened with civil war. Under the pressure of circumstances, the duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel brought forward, in the year 1829, a bill for the relief of the Roman Catholics, by emancipating them from the disabilities under which they laboured, and rendering them eligible to civil and political offices, on their swearing allegiance to the king, and declaring against all temporal authority of the pope, or of any other potentate, directly or indirectly, within the united kingdom of Great Britain. It was proposed to exclude the Roman Catholics from the offices of lord lieutenant of Ireland and of lord chancellor, and from all appointments in the universities, and similar ecclesiastical establishments. It was further enacted that, in the event of the bill being passed, the forty-shilling electors of Ireland should be disfranchised, in order that the privilege of election should be intrusted to more responsible parties. On the 13th of April, after a struggle of 35 years, this measure, having previously passed through both houses, received the royal assent, and became a part of the British law.

4. George IV. died on the 26th of June, 1830, and was succeeded by William Henry, duke of Clarence, the eldest surviving brother of the late king, under the title of William IV. At the close of this year, the Duke of Wellington and Sir R. Peel resigned their offices, and lord Grey was appointed premier. On the 1st of March, 1831, lord John Russell brought forward the long-agitated measure of Parliamentary Reform. It was now proposed to disfranchise every borough, not possessing 2000 inhabitants; to limit the representation of those possessing only 4000 inhabitants, to a single member; to extend the franchise to twenty-seven towns, which had not formerly enjoyed it; to add two representatives to the number sent by the twenty-seven of the principal counties; and to supply members to several districts of the metropolis, which had hitherto been without representatives. By these alterations, the elective franchise would be extended to 500,000 persons, who had formerly been unrepresented, but the number of the representatives would be reduced from 668 to 596. After a discussion of several weeks, the measure was rejected by a majority of 299 against 291. The parliament was dissolved, and the question was brought forward in the new parliament in July, when the bill was passed by a majority of 109, but was rejected in the house of lords by a majority of 41. Discontent was evidenced throughout the country: the houses of the leaders of the opposition were attacked; the city of Bristol was fired in several parts; the town of Derby was the scene of violent outrage; the mansion of the duke of Newcastle was reduced to ashes. Societies were formed under the title of political unions; tri-coloured flags were dis-

played, and masses of the community begun to arm themselves. A third attempt was made to pass the disputed bill, and the minister requested a creation of peers. This was refused, and lord Grey resigned his office. But the opposition were unable to form a ministry. Lord Grey was recalled, and in consequence of an intimation from the king to the opposition peers of the necessity of proceeding with the measure, the bill was passed; the royal assent was added, and the momentous question, which had agitated the country for fifty years, was finally determined.

5. In 1837, William IV. was succeeded by her present majesty, Queen Victoria, daughter of the late duke of Kent. In 1840, she married her first cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. The first event of this reign was a revolt in the Canadas, principally raised by the Canadians of French origin and some discontented persons in the upper province, and encouraged by partisans from the United States, who, to the other elements of discord, added a claim to a portion of disputed territory for the state of Maine. Lord Ashburton was despatched on a special mission, and succeeded in effecting an adjustment of the boundary question. The disturbances in Canada were also suppressed, and the Upper and Lower provinces were connected together by a legislative union. On the accession of Queen Victoria, the operation of the Salic law separated the principality of Hanover from the British crown, to which it had been annexed since the dominion of the house of Brunswick in Great Britain; and the duke of Cumberland became king of Hanover. The last event which requires notice during this reign, is the cause of the accession of the present ministry to power. The distress of the country and the deficiency of the exchequer induced the cabinet of lord Melbourne to propose a fixed duty on the importation of foreign corn, and to diminish the differential duties between foreign and colonial timber and sugar. These measures were rejected; a vote of want of confidence in the ministry was carried; and Sir Robert Peel and the duke of Wellington succeeded to the government of the country.

6. *Spain*.—The arrangements of the Congress of Vienna brought little repose to the Peninsula. The attempt on the part of Ferdinand VII. to restore absolutism was met by the determined resistance of the Cortes, while the South American colonies, from which Spain derived her principal commercial resources, were in a state of open revolt. In 1823, Louis XVIII., alarmed at the progress of the revolutionary movement, by which the royal power in Spain had been almost annihilated, sent an army across the Pyrenees, under the command of the duke of Angoulême. The Cortes fled before the invaders to Cadiz; Ferdinand was reinstated in his former authority, and for a season tranquillity was restored. Meanwhile the South American republics withdrew themselves from their allegiance to

Spain, and their independence was recognised by the government of Great Britain. But the death of Ferdinand, September 20th, 1833, led to a renewal of disturbances, and eventually to the breaking out of a civil war, which was characterized by a protracted series of cold-blooded atrocities. The Salic law, maintained by the Bourbon dynasty, excluded females from the throne. Ferdinand's only child was an infant daughter; to secure her succession, he had repealed this law; Isabella was proclaimed at Madrid, and the queen-mother, Christina, was appointed regent. The claims of Don Carlos, the king's brother, were thus set aside. But a formidable party espoused his cause in the Biscayan provinces, under Zumalacarregui and a priest named Merino. A quadruple treaty was formed between Spain, Portugal, France, and England, for asserting the rights of the infant queen and the regent, who found their support in the liberal party, and adopted the constitution of 1812. The sanguinary events which followed are fresh in the memory of all. England, without direct interference, permitted an auxiliary force of 10,000 men, raised within the United Kingdom, to take arms in the cause of the queen; but after an ineffectual service of two years, this force was disbanded, and returned home. The struggle continued till the year 1840, when the queen-mother resigned the regency, and the cortes conferred that dignity on General Espartero. The Carlist cause declined, and a general pacification was concluded. It is, however, to be lamented that confusion still reigns in this disorganized country. Espartero has been driven to a foreign soil, and the issue of the contest is still uncertain.

7. *Portugal*.—These disastrous events have not been confined to Spain. John VI. of Portugal, died on the 10th of March, 1826, when the crown devolved to his eldest son, Don Pedro, emperor of the Portuguese colonies of Brazil. The emperor, however, waived his right in favour of his daughter Donna Maria, granted a liberal constitution to the country, and appointed his brother, Don Miguel, regent. The temptation was too strong to be resisted. In 1829, the Regent caused himself to be proclaimed king of Portugal, while Pedro was resolved to maintain the right of his daughter. During a period of two years, a sanguinary contest was carried on between the partisans of the two brothers. An application was made to England, and a British armament, under admiral Napier, was despatched to the Tagus on behalf of the queen. Under the command of this gallant officer, the fleet of Don Miguel was presently defeated; this decisive blow was followed by the capture of Lisbon, where a treaty was signed, in 1834, between France, Spain, and England, for the expulsion of the usurper from the Portuguese territories. Donna Maria was established on her throne, under the regency of her father; and upon his death, which occurred shortly afterwards, she was declared of age.

Her first husband was the prince of Leuchtenberg, who died soon after his marriage. Her present husband is prince Ferdinand of Saxe Coburg, a near relative to the queen of Great Britain.

8. *France*.—The domestic history of France, since the restoration of Louis XVIII., to the death of this monarch, affords no event of particular interest. The revolution had given to the middle classes of society a considerable share in the property of the country, and they acquired a corresponding political importance. In 1824, Louis was succeeded by his brother, the Count d'Artois, under the title of Charles X., who intrusted the direction of the cabinet to prince Polignac. The king and his minister became exceedingly unpopular in consequence of their arbitrary measures, and a fresh storm was rapidly gathering over the destinies of France. On the 26th of July, 1830, three ordinances were published, involving a sacrifice of the constitutional privileges granted by the charter, and the re-establishment of the old system of despotic rule. By the first, the newly elected chamber of deputies was dissolved, before it had assembled; by the second, the law of elections was changed, so as to secure a greater influence to the government; by the third, the press was subjected to new and censorial restrictions, which were entirely subversive of its liberties. The Parisians rose in arms, and barricaded the principal streets. Two regiments of the line joined the insurgents, and for three days, the city was a scene of sanguinary conflict. The populace were triumphant; the king was deserted; the royalist troops were driven out of Paris; a provisional government was formed; Charles X. was dethroned; the duke of Orleans was appointed lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and was shortly afterwards placed on the throne, under the title of Louis Philippe I., king of the French. In May, 1830, the French took possession of Algiers, which was declared to be a colony of France. Continued conflicts have subsequently taken place between the French troops and the Arabs of the surrounding country, under the bold guidance of Abd-el Kader, and have involved the colonists in hostilities with the emperor of Morocco. The bombardments of Tangier and of Mogadore are among the most recent events of the present day.

9. *Belgium*.—The revolution of 1830 in France was quickly followed by an insurrection in a neighbouring country. The incorporation of Belgium and Holland was found to have been an impolitic measure of the Congress of Vienna. On the 25th of August, 1830, the populace of Brussels rose against the Dutch authorities and garrison, and expelled them from the city. A provisional government was formed, and Belgium became an independent state. On the 21st of July, 1831, the crown was bestowed upon Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg.

10. *Poland*.—The insurrectionary spirit now manifested itself in Poland. Goaded by the severity of the Russian government,

under the Archduke Constantine, the unfortunate Poles took up arms in 1830 against their oppressor. The European states looked on, and took no part in the struggle. For nearly two years the unequal contest raged, when the northern despot overpowered the insurgents by numbers, entered their capital, banished multitudes of them to Siberia, and compelled others to have recourse to voluntary exile. Poland has never since regained her nationality.

11. *Greece and Turkey*.—The year 1820 was distinguished by an insurrection of the Greeks against the Turkish government; in the following year its effects were fearfully exhibited in the great city of the East. The first outbreak of Greek revolt had taken place, under Ypsilanti, in Moldavia, and a proclamation had been issued, appealing to the emperor Alexander for support. The Sultan armed his Mussulman subjects, and let them loose upon the Greek, the Frank, and the Armenian population of Constantinople. "Every day," says Dr Walsh, "some new atrocities were committed, and the bodies of victims were either hanging against doors and walls, or lying without their heads, weltering and trampled in the middle of the streets. In fact, all that Byron has feigned of Corinth, or Bruce has described of Abyssinia, or you have elsewhere read that is barbarous, terrible, and disgusting in Eastern usages, was here realized." The insurrection proceeded with various success in the islands and on the continent of Greece. The opulent and peaceful Scio was reduced to a desert; almost the whole of its population was massacred, or sold "like cattle in an English fair;" the streets and the country were strewn with mangled bodies, the wells filled with children, where they were thrown by their agonized mothers, as an only refuge from Turkish barbarity. For six years a wasting war, enacted under every species of atrocity, desolated the classic soil of Greece. In 1826, Missolonghi, the last hope of the western Greeks, fell, and was consigned to all the horrors of rapine and licentiousness. The Sultan, still unable to crush the revolt by his own strength, obtained the aid of his powerful dependant, Mohammed Ali, the pacha of Egypt. Ibrahim Pacha, son of this potentate, was sent with a powerful army into the Morea; the excesses which were now perpetrated led to the intervention of some of the European powers. Russia, France, and England, advised the Porte to offer terms of pacification to the Greeks. They recommended that the Sultan should retain the nominal superiority, receive an annual tribute, and have a determinate voice in the nomination of authorities; that the authorities, however, should be chosen by the Greeks themselves; and that all Mussulmans having property in Greece, should resign it, and accept indemnification. These terms were rejected by the Sultan, and a treaty was consequently signed between Russia, France, and England, for arresting the operations between the contending parties, and for asserting the independence of Greece. To

carry these intentions into effect, a combined fleet, composed of a British squadron under Sir Edward Codrington, a French squadron under admiral De Rigny, and a Russian squadron under admiral Heiden, sailed into the Mediterranean. The Turko-Egyptian fleet entered the harbour of Navarino, and was blockaded by the allied squadrons. An armistice was concluded with Ibrahim Pacha; it was flagrantly violated; the allies entered the harbour, when a shot was fired from a Turkish vessel. This was the signal for immediate hostilities; a general engagement ensued, and, in about four hours, the combined Turkish and Egyptian fleets were annihilated. The arrival of some French forces obliged the Turks to evacuate the Morea, and the independence of Greece was virtually accomplished.

12. But the annihilation of the Turkish fleet rather confirmed than weakened the determination of the Sultan. War was declared against the Porte. A French army entered the Morea, and recovered all the posts which had been occupied by Turkish garrisons. Meanwhile the Russians, under general Diebitsch, laid siege to Silistria. This city having surrendered, the Russian general forced a passage through the Balkan, and fell in with the grand vizier, who was proceeding to take up his quarters in Salamno. A decisive battle took place, and the Turks were irretrievably defeated. Adrianople fell into the hands of the conquerors without a struggle, and Constantinople lay before them. The Sultan now acceded to terms of peace, and signed a treaty on the 14th of September, 1829, by which he agreed to pay for the expenses of the war, and to allow the Russian line of frontier to be further advanced into Asia than it had formerly been. The time had now arrived for the formal assertion of the independence of Greece. A congress of the three powers was held in London, when the crown of Greece was tendered to prince Leopold, of Saxe Coburg. After a long negotiation, the offer was declined. The crown was then bestowed on prince Otho, son of the king of Bavaria.

13. *China*.—In the year 1839, the British intercourse with China was terminated by the forcible suppression of the opium trade. The Chinese market had been supplied with this drug principally from India; its cultivation in that country is a government monopoly, and is said to have returned a revenue of upwards of 2½ millions yearly. Down to the close of the last century, it was a legitimate branch of commerce. After that period, its importation was prohibited by the Chinese authorities. A contraband trade was then carried on, and the demand for the article rose to such an excess, that, in little more than forty years, the consumption increased from 1000 to 27000 chests per annum, each chest containing about 160 pounds weight. The Chinese government proceeded to take decided measures. Captain Elliott, the English resident at Canton, was placed under restraint, and *cargoes of opium*, amounting in value to nearly three millions

sterling, were destroyed by order of the Chinese commissioner Lin. The consequence was, that in 1840, a British naval and military force appeared on the coast of China. The island of Chusan was captured in July, and various other successes attended the British arms during the few following months. The emperor of China now had recourse to diplomacy, and despatched Ke-shen, as imperial commissioner, to arrange an equitable treaty. But the diplomacy of the Chinese was as ineffectual as their arms: the terms of the treaty were evaded, and it was evident that the British were intended to be the dupes of Chinese insincerity. Ke-shen declared that his object was "to bridle and curb us *pro tempore*, in order to prepare for exterminating us at some future period." In January, 1841, preparations were made for attacking the Bogue forts, which were speedily carried. The events of the war are of too recent occurrence to require minute details. Canton and Ningpo fell into the hands of the British. On the 10th of August, Sir Henry Pottinger arrived at Macao, and determined to proceed at once to the north of China. Amoy, supposed to be impregnable, surrendered to the British. A treaty was then negotiated, by which the island of Hong-kong was ceded for ever to the British crown, five of the principal ports of China were opened to our commerce, and the emperor agreed to pay twenty-one millions of dollars by way of compensation for the property of the British, which had been destroyed at the commencement of the war.

14. *United States of America.*—In May, 1787, general Washington was elected the first president of the United States of America. In the course of the same year, a project of a constitution was submitted to a convention of delegates, and the *Federal Constitution* was established, by which the several states elected their delegates to congress. Under the new government, the States emerged from their financial and commercial difficulties, and attained a high degree of national prosperity. The new constitution had, however, divided the country into political parties: the two grand divisions were designated as *federalists* and *anti-federalists*. The former of these advocated the expediency of conferring the largest amount of power upon the supreme central authorities; the latter contended for the supremacy of the provincial legislatures, in which the popular voice could be more effectually heard. The federalists leaned towards aristocracy and England; the anti-federalists towards democracy and France. After the death of Washington, the popular party rapidly gained ground, and the election of Jefferson to the presidency in 1801, in opposition to Mr Adams, was the crowning triumph of democracy. The dominant party then acquired the name of *democrats* or *republicans*. In 1824, the name of federalist was changed for that of *national-republicans*, when the opposite party began to be called *Jackson-men*. In 1834 the old federalists were named *whigs*; the democrats,

supported Van Buren, *tories*; of the latter party, those who excited extreme opinions, have acquired the soubriquet of *-focos*. It is not to be supposed, however, that these designations invariably indicate fixed principles: questions have occasionally arisen, in the discussion of which the party symbols have changed sides, and *whig* and *conservative*, *tory* and *democrat*, have become respectively synonymous terms.

5. The events of the revolutionary war which agitated Europe, during the career of Napoleon, were felt across the Atlantic. The trade of the United States was restricted by the measures of England and of France; the impressment of seamen on board the American vessels by British men-of-war was loudly complained of; a suspicion was also entertained that the Americans had been instigated to acts of hostility by British agents. In 1812, a declaration of war against England passed the house of representatives, and was immediately followed by an invasion of Canada. During the two following years, hostilities were prosecuted between the two countries with various success. On the conclusion of the great European struggle, the subjects of dispute between England and the United States were happily arranged by a treaty, which was signed at Ghent on the 24th of December, 1814.

THE END

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

According to Abp. Usher's calculation by the Hebrew Text of the Bible.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

THE Plan of the following CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE, though extremely simple, requires, as being a new one, a short explanation. In order to give a distinct View of the succession of Princes in the chief Empires or Kingdoms, without employing for that purpose different columns, which distracts too much the attention, and occupies unnecessarily a great deal of space, the Series of the Sovereigns of different Nations is distinguished in this Table by their being printed in different Typographical Characters. Thus, the Series of the Kings and Emperors of Rome is printed in Roman Capitals;—as

14. TIBERIUS, Emperor of Rome.

The Series of the Popes is distinguishable by this character ¶ prefixed to each name;—as

1513. ¶ Pope Leo X.

That of the Sultans of the Ottoman Empire, by a) prefixed to the name.

The names of the Emperors of Germany are printed in Roman Small Capitals;—as

887. ARNOLD, Emperor of Germany.

The Kings of England are marked by the black Saxon Type;—as

1066. ~~223~~ William (the Conqueror) King of England.

The Kings of Scotland are printed in *Italic Capitals*;—as

1390. ROBERT III. King of Scotland.

And the Kings of France are distinguished by the usual *Italic* Type;—as

1498. Louis XII. King of France.

By this method the Succession of the Sovereigns in the different Kingdoms is immediately distinguishable to the eye, as well as the Duration of their Reigns, while the intervening space is filled by the Remarkable Events that occurred in that period all over the World; and thus the connection of General History is preserved unbroken. A marginal column is added of Illustrious Persons; which being appropriated chiefly to men of learning and genius, presents to the reader a view of the progress of science, and affords an easy means of forming an estimate of the literary character of any particular age in the history of mankind.

f. signifies flourished, d. died, ab. about.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

B.C.

004 The Creation of the World, according to Abp. Usher's calculation by the Hebrew text of the Scriptures.

According to Dr. Hales, who follows the longer chronology of Josephus and the Septuagint, 5411.

According to the Samaritan version, 4700.

According to Fynes Clinton, 4138.

According to "L'Art de verifier les Dates," 4963.

01 Indian Era of the Kaliyuga.

00 Chinese Cyclical Era of sixty years commenced, consequently in 1845 we are in the 45th year of the 76th cycle.

48 Era of the Deluge, according to Usher.

Hales, 3155.

F. Clinton, 2482

47 The building of Babel.—The dispersion of mankind, and the confusion of languages. (2554. Hales.)

17 Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and Assur to have built Nineveh.

88 Menes (in Scripture, Misraim) founds the monarchy of Egypt, and enacts laws.

84 The Shepherd Kings conquer Egypt.

75 Semiramis queen of Assyria.

40 Moeres king of Thebes and Memphis in Egypt.

96 The birth of Abram. (2153. Hales.)

21 Era of the Call of Abraham. (2078. Hales.)

112 Chedarlaomer subdues several of the kings in Judea.

97 Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed by fire from heaven.

95 Isaac born. (2053. Hales.)

56 Inachus founds the kingdom of Argos in Greece.

36 Jacob and Esau born. (1993. Hales.)

25 The Shepherd Kings abandon Egypt.

23 Death of Abraham. (1978. Hales.)

96 The Deluge of Ogyges in Attica.

22 Sesostris or Rameses king of Egypt.

35 Joseph dies in Egypt. (1792. Hales.)

32 The chronology of the Arundelian Marbles begins.

71 Moses born in Egypt.

56 Cecrops the Egyptian founds Athens, and institutes marriage.

46 Scamander founds the kingdom of Troy.

32 Judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly.

29 The Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.

22 The Council of the Amphictyons instituted.

20 Corinth built.

Illustrious Persons.

Mennu's legislation in India.

Oguz Khan's among the Turks.

Hosheng and Jemahid's in Persia.

Atlas, Astron. and Prometheus his brother.

B. C.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1519 Cadmus the Phœnician builds Thebes, and introduces letters and the Eleusinian mysteries into Greece.	
1513 The supposed era of the history of Job.	<i>Job f. ab.</i>
1511 Danaus came from Egypt into Greece.	
1506 Erectheus institutes the Panathenean games.	
1491 Era of the Exode of the Israelites out of Egypt. (1648. Hales.)	
1453 The first Olympic games celebrated in Greece.	<i>Moses.</i>
1452 The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, written.	
1451 Death of Moses—The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua. (1608. Hales; 1585. F. Clinton.)	
1438 Pandion king of Athens.	
1415 The Book of Joshua supposed to be written by Phinehas the high-priest.	
1406 Minos gives laws to the Cretans.	
1327 *Moeris, the best and wisest of the Egyptian kings.	<i>Olen, the most ancient composer of hymns.</i>
1322 Belus reigns in Babylon.	
1308 *Sesostris the Great king of Egypt.	
1283 *Pelops, the Lydian, gives his name to Southern Greece.	
1267 Ninus reigns in Assyria.	
1266 Œdipus marries his mother Jocasta, and reigns in Thebes.	<i>Sanconiathon, Hist.</i>
1263 The Argonautic expedition.—(According to the Newtonian chronology, 937.)	<i>Jason, Hercules, &c.</i>
1257 Theseus unites the cities of Attica.	
1255 The Israelites delivered by Deborah and Barak.	
1252 Tyre, the capital of Phœnicia, built by the Sidonians.	<i>Orpheus, Music.</i>
1239 Latinus begins to reign in Italy.	<i>Musæus, Poet, &c.</i>
1225 Siege of Thebes.—War between Etyocles and Polynices.	
— Eurysthenes and Procles kings of Lacedæmon.	
1215 Second war of Thebes, or war of the Epigonoï.	
1207 Gideon judge of Israel for forty years.	
1202 Teucer built Salamis.	
1193 The Trojan war begins.	
1184 Era of the taking and burning of Troy by the Greeks.—(According to the Arundelian Marbles, 1209.)	
1182 Æneas lands in Italy.	
1155 Samson born.	
1104 Return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus.	
1099 Samuel delivers Israel.	
— Jephthah judge of Israel.	
1082 *Cheops, or Chemmis king of Egypt, to whom the building of the first pyramid is attributed.	
1079 Saul first king of the Hebrews or Jews. (1096. F. C.)	
1070 Medon first Archon (for life) of Athens.	
1069 Codrus, king of Athens, devotes himself for his country.	
1055 David king of the Hebrews or Jews.	
1016 Solomon king of the Hebrews.	

<i>B.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1012	Era of the foundation of the temple. (1027. Hales.)	Lokman (or Bidpai) <i>Hindu fabulist.</i>
1004	Dedication of Solomon's Temple.	
980	Rehoboam king of Judah. (975. Jahn.)	
—	Jeroboam king of Israel. (975. Jahn.)	Homer <i>f.</i> 962-27, F. C.
889	Jehu usurps the throne of Israel. (884. Jahn.)	896 Elijah, <i>Prophet.</i>
—	Athalia, widow of Jehoram, usurps the throne of Judah.	
886	Homer's Poems brought from Asia into Greece.	
884	Lycurgus reforms the republic of Lacedæmon.	873 Lycurgus <i>d.</i>
869	The city of Carthage built by Dido.	Hesiod, <i>f.</i> 859-824. F.C.
825	Jeroboam restores the glory of Israel in a reign of forty-one years.	Belesis, <i>Astron.</i> and <i>Priest</i> of Babylon.
820	Nineveh taken by Arbaces and Belesis, which finishes that kingdom.	
806	Jonah preaches repentance to Nineveh.	
791	* Caranus the first king of Macedon.	
776	The FIRST OLYMPIAD begins (about July 1) in this year.	
769	Syracuse built by Archius of Corinth.	768 Isaiah, Joel, Amos,
767	Sardanapalus king of Assyria.	Micah, Obadiah, <i>Prophets.</i>
760	The Ephori, popular magistrates, instituted at Lacedæmon.	
759	(Jahn) Jotham king of Judah.	
—	— Pekah king of Israel.	
757	Hylattes king of Lydia.	
754	Decennial Archons elected at Athens.	
753	THE FOUNDATION OF ROME BY ROMULUS.	
751	Rape of the Sabines.	
752	* Archons at Athens appointed for ten years instead of for life.	
747	The Era of Nabonassar made use of by Ptolemy.	
—	Xth Olympiad.	
738	Candaules king of Lydia.	Callinus, <i>Poet.</i> <i>f.</i> 736—
724	Hezekiah twelfth king of Judah.	717.
721	Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the ten tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the kingdom of Israel.	
718	Gyges king of Lydia.	
715	NUMA POMPILIUS, second king of Rome.	
711	Sennacherib, king of Assyria, invades Judæa.	
710	Dejoces king of Media.	708 Habakkuk, <i>Prophet.</i>
703	Coreyra founded by the Corinthians.	
700	XXth Olympiad.	
696	Manasse sixteenth king of Judah.	
688	Judith kills Holofernes, the Assyrian general.	
684	Annual Archons elected at Athens.	Archilochus, <i>Poet.</i> <i>inv.</i> of Iambics.
681	Esarhaddon unites the kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria.	Tyrtæus, <i>Poet.</i>
672	TULLUS HOSTILIUS, third king of Rome.	Terpander, <i>P. & Music.</i>
670	Psammeticus king of Egypt.	
667	The combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.	Aleman, <i>Poet.</i>
660	XXXth Olympiad.	Stesichorus, <i>Poet.</i> <i>inv.</i> of the chorus.
658	Byzantium founded by Pausanias, king of Sparta.	
—	Phraortes king of Media.	
640	ANCUS MARTIUS, fourth king of Rome.	Arion, <i>Music.</i>

B. C.

- 637 The forty years of Ezekiel began.
 636 Periander tyrant of Corinth.
 — Nabopolassar, father of Nebuchadnezzar, begins to reign at Babylon.
 624 Draco, archon and legislator of Athens.
 620 XLth Olympiad.
 616 TARQUINIUS PRISCUS, fifth king of Rome.
 606 Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.
 601 Battle between the Medes and Lydians, who are separated by a great eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales. (Newton Chron. 585.)
 — End of the Assyrian empire.—Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
 600 Jeremiah prophesied.
 599 Birth of Cyrus the Great.
 594 Solon, archon and legislator of Athens.
 588 Era of the captivity—Nebuchadnezzar destroys Jerusalem, carries Zedekiah and the principal inhabitants to Babylon, and puts an end to the kingdom of Judah. (586. Hales.)
 580 Lth Olympiad.
 578 SERVIUS TULLIUS, sixth king of Rome.
 572 Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.
 571 Phalaris tyrant of Agrigentum.
 562 Comedies first exhibited at Athens by Thespis.
 — Croesus reigns in Lydia.
 550 Pisistratus tyrant of Athens.
 548 The ancient Temple of Delphos burned by the Pisistratidæ.
 540 LXth Olympiad.
 538 Babylon taken by Cyrus.—End of the Babylonian empire.
 536 Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia.—He puts an end to the Jewish captivity, which had lasted seventy years, (reckoned from B. C. 606.)
 534 TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS, seventh king of Rome.
 — Daniel prophesied.
 529 Death of Cyrus the Great.—Cambyses king of Persia.
 — Death of Pisistratus tyrant of Athens.
 522 Darius, son of Hystaspes, king of Persia.
 520 The Jews begin to build the second temple.
 515 Era of its completion and dedication.
 510 The Pisistratidæ expelled from Athens, and the Democracy restored.
 509 The Tarquins expelled from Rome, and the regal government abolished.
 508 * Rome an aristocratic republic, under two consuls annually elected.
 — The first (commercial) alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.
 504 Sardis taken and burned by the Athenians.

Illustrious Persons.

611 Sappho, *Poetess.*
 Alcæus, *Poet.*

The seven wise men of Greece:
 Periander of Corinth;
 Solon of Athens;
 Pittachus of Mitylene;
 Chilon, Ephor of Sparta;
 Cleobulus; Bias; and
 Thales of Miletus.

Sacadas, *Mus.*
 Æsop, *Greek fab.*

576 Susarion, *inv. of Comedy.*
Phils. of Ionic school:
 Pherecydes, Anaximander, Anaximenes.

Pythagoras, *Phil. f.*
 Xenophanes, *f. of the Eleatic sch.*
 Ibycus, Anacreon,
 Theogonia, Phocylides, *Poets.*

535 Thespis, *first exhib. Tragedy.*

Zoroaster, *Persian Ph. f.*
 Confucius, *Chinese Ph. f.*
 Diponius and Scyllis of Crete, *Statuaries.*
 Rhæcus of Samos, *inv. of casting metals.*

XXth Olympiad.

The first Dictator created at Rome (Lartius).
Institution of the Saturnalia at Rome.

The port of Piræus built by the Athenians.

The battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades
defeats the Persians.

The first tribunes of the people created at
Rome.

Statues erected at Athens to Harmodius and
Aristogiton.

Miltiades dies in prison.

Darius king of Persia.

Coriolanus banished from Rome.

Quæstors instituted at Rome.

Aristides banished from Athens by the
Ostracism.

Darius invades Greece.—The Spartans under
Leonidas, cut to pieces at Thermopylæ,
(July 6.)

Naval victory gained by the Greeks over the
Persians at Salamis.

Attica laid waste, and Athens burned, by
Mardonius.

Victories over the Persians at Platea and
Mycale on the same day, (September 25.)

Darius leaves Greece.

100 Fabii killed by the Veientes.

Cleisthenes rebuilds Athens.

Alaricus triumphs over the Veientes and
Sabines.

The Roman citizens numbered at 103,000.

A great eruption of Ætna.

Hiero I. king of Syracuse.

Publius, the Roman Tribune, obtains a law
for the election of magistrates in the comitia
held by tribes.

Simon, son of Miltiades, defeats the Persian
army and fleet in one day, at the mouth of
the river Eurymedon.

Capua founded by the Tuscans.

Darius (Longimanus) king of Persia.

Simon banished by the Ostracism.

The Egyptians under Inarus revolt from the
Persians.

The Terentian law proposed at Rome.

XXXth Olympiad.

Cincinnatus Dictator at Rome.

The Ludi Sæculares first instituted at Rome.

Commencement of the seventy prophetic
weeks of Daniel.

The number of the tribunes of the people at
Rome increased from five to ten.

He wrote two books of Chronicles supposed to have
been written at this time by Ezra.

Creation of the Decemviri at Rome, and com-
pilation of the Laws of the Twelve Tables.

Peace between the Greeks and Persians con-
cluded by Cimon, glorious for Greece.

Illustrious Persons.
Heraclitus, *Philos.*

Æschylus, *fa. of the*
Drama.

Simonides, Pindar,
Bacchylides, *Poets, f.*

Vyasa and Valmiki,
Hindu Poets.

Ezra collects and pub.
the Scriptures.

Leucippus, *f. of the*
Atomic Sch.

Democritus, his disc.

Age of Pericles, 444—29:
Sophocles, Euripides,

trag.

Aristophanes, *in com.*

Pindar, *in lyric po.*

Socrates, *in philos.*

B. C.

- 449 Death of Virginia, and abolition of the Decemvirate.
- 445 The law of Canulcius for the intermarriage of the Patricians and Plebians at Rome.
- Military tribunes created.
- 443 The Censorship first instituted at Rome.
- 436 Pericles in high power at Athens.
- 432 Meton's nineteen years' Cycle of the Moon.
- 431 The Peloponnesian war begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament ends about this time.
- Great Plague at Athens, eloquently described by Thucydides.
- Malachi the last of the prophets.
- 428 Death of Pericles.
- 423 Darius Nothus king of Persia.
- 420 XCth Olympiad.
- 418 Disturbances at Rome on account of the Agrarian law.
- 414 The Athenians defeated before Syracuse.
- 413 Alcibiades, accused at Athens, flies to the Lacedæmonians.
- 412 A council of 400 governs Athens.
- 406 *Dionysius I. tyrant of Syracuse.
- 405 Lysander defeats the Athenians at Ægos Potamos.
- 404 Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) king of Persia.
- End of the Peloponnesian War.
- 403 Lysander takes Athens.—Government of the Thirty Tyrants.
- 401 The Younger Cyrus, son of Darius Nothus, defeated by his brother Artaxerxes, and killed.
- Retreat of the 10,000 Greeks.
- Persecution and death of Socrates.
- Thrasybulus drives out the Thirty Tyrants, and delivers Athens.
- 399 A Lectisternium celebrated at Rome for the first time.
- 397 The Lake of Alba drained by the Romans.
- 396 Syracuse unsuccessfully besieged by the Carthaginians.
- 391 Marcus Furius Camillus dictator at Rome.—Veii taken.
- 387 Dishonourable peace of Antalcidas between the Spartans and Persians.
- 385 Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus. (? 390.)
- 382 Phæbidas, the Spartan, seizes the citadel of Thebes.
- 380 Pelopidas and Epaminondas deliver Thebes from the Lacedæmonians.
- Cth Olympiad.
- 371 Battle of Leuctra, in which the Lacedæmonians are defeated by the Thebans under Epaminondas.
- 367 *Dionysius II. tyrant of Syracuse, Plato's worst disciple.

Illustrious Persons.

Age of Pericles—cont.
 Herodotus, Thucydides
 Xenophon, in *hist.*
 Hippocrates, in *med.*
 Phidias, Polycleus,
 Praxiteles, in *plastic arts.*
 Polygnotus, Zeuxis,
 Parrhasius, in *paint.*
 Ictinus, Callicrates, in *archit.* designers of the Parthenon, &c.

Sophists :

Gorgias of *Leontium*;
 Protagoras of *Abdera*;
 Prodicus of *Ceos*.

Meton, *Math.*

Isocrates, Antiphon, An-
 docides, Lysias, *Or-*
ators, f.
 Callimachus, *Arch.*
 inv. of the Corinth-
 ian order.
 Damon and Pythias.
 Ctesias, *Hist. f.*
 Plato, *f. of the Acad.*
Sch., f.

Antisthenes, *f. of the*
Cynic Sch.
 Aristippus, *f. of the*
Cyrenaic Sch.

Plebeian Consuls first elected at Rome.
 Diodorus defeats the tyrant of Phæria, but is killed in battle.
 Battle of Mantinea, in which Epaminondas is killed.
 Cato leaps into a gulf in the Forum at Rome.
 Darius Ochus (or Artaxerxes III.) king of Persia. (According to Blair, 358.)
 War of the Allies against Athens.
 Philip of Macedon takes Amphipolis, Pydna, and Potidea.
 Dionysius overcomes the party of Dionysius at Syracuse.
 Alexander the Great born at Pella in Macedonia.
 Temple of Diana, at Ephesus, burnt by Erostratus.
 Phocian or Sacred War begins in Greece.
 Philip conquers the Thracians, Pæonians, and Illyrians.
 First Plebeian Dictator at Rome.
 Darius Ochus subdues Egypt.
 Philip of Macedon takes Olynthus.
 End of the Sacred War.
 First Plebeian Censor at Rome.
 Dionysius restored at Syracuse, after an exile of ten years.
 Philip admitted a member of the Amphictyonic Council.
 Syracuse taken by Timoleon, and Dionysius the Tyrant finally banished.
 Sacred War between the Romans and Samnites, which led to the conquest of all Italy.
 5th Olympiad.
 Carthaginians defeated near Agrigentum.
 Decius devotes himself to his country.
 The laws made by the general assembly of the people no longer require the confirmation of the Roman Senate.
 Battle of Cheronæa gained by Philip over the Athenians and Thebans.
 Philip chosen Generalissimo of the Greeks.
 Philip murdered by Pausanias.
 Alexander the Great king of Macedon.
 Alexander the Great destroys Thebes.
 Darius III. (Codomanus) king of Persia.
 Alexander chosen Generalissimo by the States of Greece.
 Alexander defeats the Persians on the banks of the Granicus.
 First Plebeian Prætor at Rome.
 Persians defeated by Alexander at Issus.
 Alexander conquers Egypt, and takes Tyre.
 Darius defeated by Alexander at Arbela.
 Darius Codomanus killed.—End of the Persian empire.
 Alexander takes possession of Susa, and sets fire to the palace of Persepolis.

Illustrious Persons.

Demosthenes and Æschines, *Orators*, *f.*
 Hermogenes, *Archt.*
 of Temple of Bacchus at Teos.

Myron, Alcamenes, Ctesilaus, and Scopas, *Statuaries*.

Age of Alexander the Great, 336—23:
 Aristotle, *Phil.*;
 Diogenes the Cynic;
 Demochrates, *Archt.*;
 Lysippus, *Sculp.*;
 Pyrgoteles, *Gem Eng.*
 Apelles, Protogenes,
 Pausias, *Painters*.
 Aristoxenes, *Mus.*
 Menander and Philemon, *new Gk. Com.*

<i>B.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons</i>
328	Alexander passes into India, defeats Porus, founds several cities, penetrates to the Ganges.	
—	The voyage of Nearchus from the Indus to the Euphrates.	
325	Papirius Cursor, dictator at Rome, triumphs over the Samnites.	
323	Alexander the Great dies at Babylon, at the age of thirty-three (April 21).	
322	First partition of Alexander's empire.	
321	The Samnites make the Roman army pass under the yoke at Caudium.	
320	Ptolemy I. carries 100,000 Jews captives into Egypt.	
317	Agathocles tyrant of Syracuse.	
312	Era of the Seleucids.	Xenocrates, <i>Phil. f.</i>
—	Pyrrhus II. king of Epirus, the greatest hero of his time.	
311	Cassander, Lysimachus, and Ptolemy, conclude a peace with Antigonus.	
304	Demetrius besieges Rhodes.	
303	Demetrius restores the Greek cities to their liberty.	
301	Battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus is defeated and slain.	Pyrrho, <i>f. of the Stoic School.</i>
—	Fabius Maximus and Valerius Corvus dictators.	Berosus, <i>Bab. H</i>
300	Seleucus founds Antioch, Edessa, and Laodicea.	Euclid, <i>the f. of M</i>
—	CXXth Olympiad.	Aristarchus, <i>Astr</i>
—	First Plebeian Roman High-Priest.	
298	Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes.	
294	Seleucus resigns his wife Stratonice to his son Antiochus.	
286	Law of Hortensius, by which the decrees of the people were allowed the same force as those of the Senate.	Theophrastus, <i>f.</i>
285	The astronomical era of Dionysius of Alexandria.	Epicurus, <i>f. of the School.</i>
284	Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt.	Zeno, <i>f. of the Stoic Phil.</i>
283	The library of Alexandria founded.	Arcehilas, <i>f. of Mid. Academy</i>
281	Commencement of the Achean league.	Chares, <i>Archit. of los. at Rhodes.</i>
280	Pyrrhus invades Italy.	Theocritus, <i>B</i>
—	Antiochus Soter king of Syria.	Moschus, <i>An Poets, f.</i>
277	The translation of the Septuagint made by the order of Ptolemy Philadelphus. (Playfair, 285.)	
—	Antigonus Gonatus reigned in Macedon thirty-six years.	
275	Pyrrhus unsuccessful against the Carthaginians in Sicily.	
274	Pyrrhus, totally defeated by the Romans near Beneventum, evacuates Italy.	
272	The Samnites finally subdued by the Romans.	
266	Silver money is coined at Rome for the first time.	
265	The citizens of Rome numbered at 292,224.	
264	The first Punic war begins.—The Chronicle of Paros composed.	

radiators first exhibited at Rome.
 Provincial Questors instituted at Rome.
 XXXth Olympiad.
 First naval victory obtained by the Romans
 under the consul Duilius.
 Regulus defeated and taken prisoner by the
 Carthaginians under Xanthippus.
 Ananias chosen High-Priest of the Jews.
 Great victory of Metellus over Asdrubal.
 The Romans besiege Lilybæum—are defeated
 by Hamilcar.
 Arsaces I. founds the kingdom of Parthia.
 Teodotus founds the kingdom of Bactria.
 End of the first Punic war.
 Attalus king of Pergamus succeeds Eumenes.
 Comedies are first acted at Rome.
 The temple of Janus shut for the first time
 since the reign of Numa.
 Hamilcar killed in Spain.
 Great victory of the Romans over the Gauls.
 XLth Olympiad.
 Hannibal takes Saguntum.
 The second Punic war begins.
 Hannibal defeats the Romans under Flaminius.
 Publius Maximus dictator.
 Battle of Cannæ, in which the Romans are
 totally defeated by Hannibal.
 Philip II. of Macedon defeats the Ætolians.
 Marcus Cælius takes Syracuse, after a siege of two
 years.
 Scipio surrenders to the Romans.
 Antiochus the Great conquers Judea.
 Asdrubal vanquished in Spain by the Scipios.
 Publius Scipio sent into Spain, takes new
 Carthage.
 Philopœmen Prætor of the Achæans.
 The Carthaginians recall Hannibal to Africa.
 Antiochus poisoned by Massinissa.
 Scipio led in triumph to Rome by P. Scipio.
 Philip defeated by the Romans at Cynocephale.
 The battle of Zama, and end of the second
 Punic war. (201. Heeren.)
 The Romans enter Asia, and defeat Antigonus
 at Magnesia.
 The elder Cato censor at Rome.
 XLth Olympiad.
 War between the Romans and Perseus king of
 Macedon.
 Antiochus defeats the generals of Ptolemy in
 Egypt.
 Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jeru-
 salem.
 Terence's comedies performed at Rome.
 Scipio defeated by Paulus Æmilius, and
 brought prisoner to Rome.—End of the
 kingdom of Macedon.
 Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of
 Judea.

Illustrious Persons.

Cleanthes, *Sto. Phil. f.*
 Manetho, *Egypt. Hist.*
f.
 Zolius, *Crit. f.*
 Conon, *Astron. f.*
 Sycophron, *Callima-*
chus, Alexr. poets. f.
 Erastosthenes, *First*
Math. Geog.
 Apollonius, *inv. of*
Conic Sections.
 L. Andronicus, *f. of*
Latin Com.
 Jesus, son of Sirach.
 Nævius, *Poet. f.*
 Fab. Pictor, *R. Hist. f.*
 Cin. Alimentus, *R.*
Hist.
 Erastosthenes, *Geo. f.*
 Chrysippus, *Phil. f.*
 Archagathus, *First*
Physician at Rome.

Archimedes, *Math. d.*

Apol. Rhodius, *Poet. f.*
 Pucuvius, *Traged. f.*
 Philopœmen, *d. 185.*
 Plautus, *d. 184.*
 Carneades, *f. of the*
Third Acad. f.

Ennius, *f. of Latin Song*
d. 167.
 Terence, *f., d. 159.*

Cæcilius, *Poet, d.*

<i>B. C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>	
164	The Roman citizens numbered at 327,032.	166	Hipparchus, <i>Astron.</i>
163	Era of the Maccabees.		deter. lat. and longt.
149	The third Punic war begins.		M. P. Cato, <i>Orat.</i>
147	Metellus defeats the Achæans.		Philo Byzant, <i>f.</i>
146	Corinth taken by the consul Mummius.		Q. Metellus Macertoni- nus, <i>Archit. of</i>
—	Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.		Jupiter Stator at Rome.
140	CLXth Olympiad.	140	Critolaus, <i>Phil. d.</i>
137	The Romans shamefully defeated by the Numantines.	139	Accius, <i>Tr. P. d.</i>
135	The history of the Apocrypha ends.		
—	Antiochus besieges Jerusalem.		
133	Tiberius Gracchus put to death.		
—	Numantia taken. Pergamus becomes a Roman province.	131	Pacuvius, <i>Tr. P. d.</i>
121	Caius Gracchus killed.		C. Piso, <i>f.</i>
113	First great migration of the German nations. —The consul Carbo drives the Cimbri and Teutones out of Italy.	124	Polybius, <i>Hist. d.</i>
111	The Jugurthine war begins.		Nicander, Hipparchus, Agatharchides, Arthemidorus, <i>Gr.</i>
108	Marius defeats Jugurtha.		<i>Poets, f.</i>
103	Jugurtha starved to death at Rome.		Lucilius, <i>Rom. Poet. d.</i>
102	Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri near Aix in Provence.	101	Turpilius, <i>Com. d.</i>
100	CLXXth Olympiad.		Meleager, <i>Col. of Gr.</i>
91	The war of the allies against the Romans.		<i>Anthology.</i>
90	Sylla defeats the Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, &c.		Panini.
89	The Mithridatic war begins.		Sudraka, <i>Hindu</i>
88	Civil war between Marius and Sylla. Sylla takes possession of Rome.		<i>Dram.</i>
86	Mithridates king of Pontus defeated by Sylla.		L. Afranius, <i>Com. f.</i>
83	Sylla defeats Norbanus.—The Capitol burned.	91	Asclepiades, of Prusa, <i>Rom. Physicis. f.</i>
82	Sylla perpetual Dictator. His horrible pro- scription.	84	Cinna, <i>d.</i>
80	Julius Cæsar makes his first campaign.		
79	Cicero's first oration for Roscius.		L. C. Sisenna, <i>Hist. f.</i>
78	Sylla resigns all power,—and dies.		
77	The war of Sertorius.		
72	Lucullus repeatedly defeats Mithridates, and reduces Pontus to a Roman province.	73	Sertorius, <i>d.</i>
70	Crassus and Pompey chosen consuls at Rome.		Terentius Varro, <i>f.</i>
63	Victories of Pompey.—He takes Jerusalem, and restores Hyrcanus to the government of Judea.		Hortensius, <i>Orat. f.</i>
62	Catiline's conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.		T. Pomp. Atticus, <i>f.</i>
61	Pompey enters Rome in triumph.		Asinius Pollio, <i>f.</i>
60	CLXXXth Olympiad.		
59	The first Triumvirate: Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.		Laberius, <i>Mim. f.</i>
—	Cæsar proposes a new Agrarian law.		
58	Clodius the tribune procures the banishment of Cicero.		
57	Cæsar defeats Ariovistus in Gaul.		
—	Cicero brought back from exile with high honour.		
56	* Era of Vikramaditya: the death of an Indian raja of that name.		Kalidasa, <i>Sansc. poet.</i>
55	Cæsar lands in Britain for a short campaign.		Lucretius, <i>poet & phil. d.</i>

<i>B.C.</i>	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
54 Cæsar invades Britain a second time, and conquers a part of the country.	
53 Cræsus killed in Mesopotamia.	
52 Milo defended by Cicero for the slaughter of Clodius.	51 Possidonius, <i>d. ab.</i>
49 Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.—Commencement of the era of Antioch, October A.C. 49.	Trogus Pompeius, <i>f.</i> Alex. Polyhistor, <i>f.</i> Sosigenes, <i>Math.</i>
48 Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.	
Pompey slain in Egypt.	
— The Alexandrian library of 400,000 vols. burned.	
46 Cato, besieged in Utica, kills himself.	
45 The calendar reformed by Julius Cæsar, by introducing the solar year instead of the lunar. The first Julian year began 1st January, 45 B.C.	
44 Julius Cæsar killed in the senate-house.	Julius Cæsar, <i>d.</i>
— Octavius, grand nephew and heir of Julius Cæsar, comes to Rome, and is opposed at first by Antony.	
43 Second Triumvirate: Octavius, Mark Antony, and Lepidus.	M. T. Cicero, <i>d.</i> A. Hirtius, <i>f.</i> Diodorus Siculus, <i>f.</i> M. J. Brutus, <i>f.</i> Corn. Nepos, <i>Hist., f.</i>
42 Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cæsius are defeated.	40 Catullus, <i>Poet, d.</i>
40 Herod marries Mariamne, daughter of Hyrcanus, and obtains from the Romans the government of Judea.	
34 Antony divides Armenia among the children of Cleopatra.	Sallust, <i>Hist. d.</i>
33 Mauritania reduced into a Roman province.	Dioscorides, <i>Phys. d.</i>
32 War declared by the Senate against Antony and Cleopatra.	Pub. Syrus, <i>Poet, f.</i> Manilius, <i>Poet, f.</i> Corn. Gallus, <i>Poet, f.</i> M. Corvinus, <i>Hist., f.</i>
31 Battle of Actium, and end of the Roman Commonwealth.	<i>Age of Augustus.</i>
— OCTAVIUS emperor of Rome—uniting in himself the dignities of <i>consul, tribune, imperator</i> , and <i>Pontifex Maximus</i> .	Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Tibullus, Propertius, Phædrus, Faliscus, <i>Poets;</i>
30 Death of Mark Antony and Cleopatra. Alexandria taken by Octavius.	Livy, Dionsius Hal. <i>Hists;</i>
27 Octavius receives the title of Augustus.	Varro, <i>the Critic;</i> M. Vitruvius, <i>Archit.;</i> M. Scævola, <i>Ictus;</i> Verrius Flaccus, <i>Gr.;</i> N. Damascenus; Labeo, Capito, <i>Icti;</i> Hyginus, <i>Math.;</i> Seneca, <i>Phil.;</i> Strabo, <i>Geog.</i>
23 Death of Marcellus.—Agrippa in Spain.	
20 CXCth Olympiad.	
— Porus king of India sends an embassy to Augustus.	
17 Augustus revives the secular games.	
15 The Rhæti and Vindelici defeated by Drusus.	
10 The temple of Janus shut by Augustus for a short time.	
8 Augustus corrects an error of the Roman calendar.	
— Death of Mæcenas.	
5 Augustus ordains a census of all the people in the Roman empire.	Vellius Patereculus, <i>Hist.</i> Celsus, <i>Med., f.</i> Valerius Max., <i>Hist.</i>
4 JESUS CHRIST is born four years before the commencement of the vulgar era.	

A.C.

9	The Roman legions, under Varus, cut to pieces in Germany.	
—	Ovid the poet banished to Tomos.	
14	TIBERIUS, 2d emperor of Rome.	
19	Germanicus dies at Antioch.	
—	Tiberius banishes the Jews from Rome.	
21	CCth Olympiad.	
25	CC1st Olympiad.—Here the OLYMPIADS end.	
26	John the Baptist preaches in Judea the coming of the Messiah.	
27	Tiberius retires to the island of Capreae.	Pomp. Mela, <i>Geog.</i> , f.
—	Pilate made governor of Judea.	
31	Sejanus disgraced, and put to death by Tiberius.	32 John the Bapt., d.
33	¶ St. Peter first pope.	Oolumella, f.
—	JESUS CHRIST is crucified.	Apion, <i>Gram.</i>
35	The conversion of St. Paul.	Fenestella, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
37	CALIGULA, 3d emperor of Rome.	Isidorus, <i>Geog.</i> , f.
39	St. Matthew writes his Gospel.	Philo-Judeus, f.
40	The name of Christians first given to the disciples of Christ at Antioch.	Asinius Pollio, f.
41	CLAUDIUS, 4th emperor of Rome.	
—	Herod persecutes the Christians, and imprisons Peter.	
42	Sergius Paulus, proconsul, converted by St. Paul.	
43	Expedition of Claudius into Britain.	
44	St. Mark writes his Gospel.	
45	Vespasian in Britain.	
47	The <i>Ludi Sæculares</i> performed at Rome.	
48	Messalina put to death by Claudius, who marries Agrippina, the mother of Nero.	Lucan, Persius, Petronius, <i>Poets.</i>
50	St. Paul preaches in the Areopagus at Athens.	Aræteus <i>Cap. d.</i>
51	Caracæus the British king is carried prisoner to Rome.	Cornutus, <i>Phil.</i> , f.
54	NERO, 5th emperor of Rome.	Appollonius Tyan, f.
55	Britannicus poisoned by Nero.	Q. Curtius, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
59	Nero puts to death his mother Agrippina.	
60	Suetonius Paulinus defeats the Britons.	Portius Latro, f.
61	The Britons, under queen Boadicea, defeat the Romans.	
64	The first persecution of the Christians raised by Nero.	Asc. Pedianus, f.
—	Rome set on fire by Nero.	Dioscorides, <i>Med.</i>
66	Bareas Soranus and Thracia Pætus put to death by Nero.	
—	¶ Pope Linus.	
67	Massacre of the Jews by Florus, at Cæsarea, Ptolemais, and Alexandria.	
—	St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.	
—	Josephus, the Jewish historian, governor of Galilee.	
—	¶ Pope St. Clement.	
68	GALBA, 6th emperor of Rome.	
69	OTHO, 7th emperor of Rome.	
—	VITELLIUS, 8th emperor of Rome.	
70	VESPASIAN, 9th emperor of Rome.	
—	Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.	74 Silius Ital., <i>Poet.</i> , d.
77	¶ Pope St. Cletus.	Clemens Romanus, f.

- C.*
78 Era of Salivahana (the years of which are called Saca), much used in the south and west of India.
— A great pestilence at Rome, 10,000 dying in one day.
79 TITUS, 10th emperor of Rome.
— Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.
80 Conquests of Agricola in Britain.
81 DOMITIAN, 11th emperor of Rome.
83 ¶ Pope Anacletus.
89 Apollonius of Tyanea defends himself before Domitian against an accusation of treason.
95 Dreadful persecutions of the Christians at Rome, and in the provinces.
— St. John writes his Apocalypse.
— St. John writes his Gospel.
96 NERVA, 12th emperor of Rome.
— ¶ Pope Evaristus.
98 TRAJAN, 13th emperor of Rome.
— Trajan forbids the Christian Assemblies.
99
03 The Dacians subdued by Trajan.
07 Trajan's victories in Asia.
08 St. Ignatius devoured by wild beasts at Rome.
— ¶ Pope Alexander I.
15 The Jews in Cyrene murder 200,000 Greeks and Romans.
17 ¶ Pope Sixtus I.
18 ADRIAN, 14th emperor of Rome.
— Persecution of the Christians renewed by Adrian, but afterwards suspended.
20 Adrian's wall built across the island of Britain.
27 ¶ Pope Telesphorus.
31 Adrian visits Egypt and Syria.
32 Adrian publishes his perpetual edict or code of the laws.
35 The Romans destroyed 580,000 Jews in Judea.
37 Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem, by the name of *Ælia Capitolina*.
138 ¶ Pope Hyginus.
— ANTONINUS PIUS, 15th emperor of Rome.
139 Lollius Urbicus, Roman governor of Britain, pushes his conquests to the Murray Frith.
— The wall of Antoninus built between the Forth and Clyde.
142 ¶ Pope Pius I.
150 ¶ Pope Anicetus.
154 Justin Martyr publishes his Apology for the Christians.
161 MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS, 16th emperor of Rome.
162 ¶ Pope Soter.
167 Polycarp and Pionices suffered Martyrdom in Asia.
169 War with the Marcomanni.
171 Death of Verus. Marcus Aurelius sole emperor.
- Illustrious Persons.*
Pliny Sen. *N. Hist.*
Florus, *f.*
Val. Flaccus, *Poet, f.*
90 Martialis, *Poet, d.*
Dio Chrysostom, *Orat., d.*
93 Josephus, *Hist., d.*
Quintillian, *Gram., d.*
Statius, *Poet, d.*
Sulpitia, *Poet, f.*
99 Tacitus, *Hist., d.*
Julius Frontinus, *d.*
Pliny, Junior, *f.*
114 Appicius Coelus, *f.*
Q. A. Florus, *Hist., f.*
C. Suetonius, *Hist., f.*
119 Plutarch, *d.*
Æli. Adrianus, *f.*
Arrian, *Hist., f.*
128 Juvenal, *Poet, d.*
130 Aul. Gellius, *d.*
Ter. Maurus, *f.*
Justin Martyr, *f.*
133 Philo Byblinus, *d.*
L. Apuleius, *f.*
Ptolemy, *Geog., f.*
140 Ælian, *Hist., d.*
148 Appian, *Hist., f.*
M. Antoninus, *Phil., f.*
Epitetus, *Phil., d.*
Herodes Atticus, *f.*
Caius, *Jurist, f.*
Apuleius, *Poet and Ph., f.*
163 Pausanias, *d.*
165 Polycarp, *Bish., d.*
Justin, *Hist., f.*
170 Domet. Phaler, *d.*
Diophantea, *Muth., f.*

A. C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
171	¶ Pope Eleutherius.	
177	Persecution of the Christians at Lyons.	
180	COMMODUS, 17th emperor of Rome.	Lucian, <i>Poet</i> , d.
185	¶ Pope Victor I.	Agathareides, <i>Phil.</i> f.
189	The Saracens defeat the Romans.—This people for the first time mentioned in history.	186 Julius Pollux, d.
193	PERTINAX, 18th emperor of Rome.	Herodianus, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
—	DIDIUS JULIANUS, 19th emperor of Rome, by purchase.	Jamblicus, <i>Poet</i> , f.
—	PESCENNIUS NIGER declared emperor in the East.	Galen, <i>Phys.</i> , d.
—	SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS, 20th emperor of Rome.	Sextus Empericus, f.
194	Niger defeated by Severus, and put to death.	Max. Tyrius, <i>Phil.</i> f.
195	Byzantium besieged, surrenders to Severus.	Plotinus, <i>Phil.</i> , f.
196	ALBINUS proclaimed emperor in Britain.	Julius Solinus, f.
197	Albinus defeated by Severus, he kills himself.	
—	¶ Pope Zephyrinus.	Athenæus, d.
200		Tertulian, d.
202	The fifth persecution against the Christians, principally in Egypt.	Symmachus, f.
203	The Scots converted to Christianity by the preaching of Marcus and Dionysius.	Clemens Alex., f.
208	Severus, with his sons Caracalla and Geta, in Britain.	Irenæus, d.
209	The Caledonians repulsed, and a wall built between the rivers Forth and Clyde.	Hegeippus, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
211	CARACALLA (21st) and GETA emperors of Rome.	Dions. Cato, <i>Poet</i> , f.
212	Caracalla murders Geta.	Philostrates, f.
215	Caracalla confers the right of citizenship upon all Roman subjects.	Minucius Felix, f.
217	Caracalla put to death.	Papinianus, d.
—	MACRINUS, 22d emperor of Rome.	
—	¶ Pope Calixtus I.	213 Oppian, <i>Poet</i> , d.
218	HELIOGABULUS, 23d emperor of Rome.	
222	ALEXANDER SEVERUS, 24th emperor of Rome.	220 Jul. Africanus, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
—	A tribute paid by the Romans to the Goths.	Diogenes Laertius, d.
—	¶ Pope Urban I.	Ælianus, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
226	The Persians totally defeated by Alexander Severus.	Dion. Cassius, <i>Hist.</i> f.
230	¶ Pope Pontianus.	Ulpianus, f.
235	¶ Pope Anterus.	Julius Paulus, f.
—	MAXIMINUS assassinates Alexander Severus, and is proclaimed (25th) emperor of Rome.	L. Pomponius, f.
236	The sixth persecution of the Christians.	? Fingal, the Caledonian Hero, f.
—	¶ Pope Fabianus.	
237	Maximinus defeats the Dacians and Sarmatians.	
238	GORDIANS (I. & II.) 26th and 27th emperors of Rome.	Censorinus, f.
242	Gordian defeats the Persians under Sapor.	Modestinus Ictus, f.
—	PUPIENUS and BALBINUS, 28th and 29th emperors of Rome.	Ammonius, <i>Phil.</i> , f.
—	GORDIAN III. 30th emperor of Rome.	
244	PHILIP THE ARABIAN, 31st emperor of Rome.	

i. c.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
248 The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.— Pompey's theatre burned.	Herodian, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
— St Cyprian elected Bishop of Carthage.	
249 DECIUS, 32d emperor of Rome.	
250 The seventh persecution of the Christians under Decius.	
— ¶ Pope St. Cornelius.	
251 GALLUS, 33d emperor of Rome.	
252 ¶ Pope Lucius I.	
253 The Goths, Burgundians, &c. make an irrup- tion into Mœsia and Pannonia.	
254 ÆMILIANUS, 34th emperor of Rome.	Origen, d.
— VALERIANUS, 35th emperor of Rome.	255 Paulus, <i>Jurist.</i> , d.
— ¶ Pope Stephen I.	
257 The eighth persecution of the Christians.	258 Cyprian, d.
— ¶ Pope Sixtus II.	
250 The Persians ravage Syria.	
— ¶ Pope Dionysius.	
260 GALLIENUS, 36th emperor of Rome.	
— The Temple of Diana at Ephesus burned.	
261 Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cæsarea.	
267 The Herulii invade and ravage Greece.	
268 CLAUDIUS II. 37th emperor of Rome.	Novitianus, f.
269 The Goths and Heruli, to the number of 320,000, defeated by Claudius.	Anatolius, <i>Math.</i> , f.
— ¶ Pope Felix I.	
270 AURELIAN, 38th emperor of Rome.	Plotinus, <i>Phil.</i> , d.
271 The Alemanni and Marcomanni ravage the empire.	
272 The ninth persecution of the Christians.	
273 Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, defeated by Aure- lian at Edessa.	Longinus, d.
274 ¶ Pope Eutychianus.	Achilles Tatius, <i>Art.</i> f.
275 TACITUS, 39th emperor of Rome.	Paul. Samosatenus, f.
276 PROBUS, 40th emperor of Rome.	
282 CARUS, 41st emperor of Rome.—defeats the Quadi and Sarmatians.	Modestus, f.
— CARINUS—NUMERIANUS, Cæsars.	280 Manes, <i>Phil.</i> , d.
283 ¶ Pope Caius.	
— Fingal king of Morven died.	Nemesianus, <i>Poet.</i> , f.
284 DIOCLETIAN, 42d emperor of Rome— also the era of D.	Arnobius, f.
285 MAXIMIAN, 43d (associate) emperor of Rome.	Gregory Hermogenes, f.
286 The empire attacked by the northern nations.	
— Carausius usurps the government of Britain, and reigns seven years.	288 Ulpian, <i>Jurist.</i> , d.
290 The Gregorian and Hermogenian Codes published.	Ælius Spartianus, <i>Hist.</i> f.
292 Partition of the empire by Diocletian between two Emperors and two Cæsars as co-rulers.	Jul. Capitolinus, <i>Hist.</i> f.
— GALERIUS and CONSTANTIUS, Cæsars.	Vul. Gallicanus, <i>Hist.</i>
295 ¶ Pope Marcellinus.	Trebellius Pollio, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
— Alexandria in Egypt taken by Diocletian.	Ælius Lamprid, <i>Hist.</i> f.
296	Hierocles, <i>Poet.</i> , f.
297 The tenth persecution of the Christians.	Fl. Vopiscus, <i>Hist.</i> f.

A. C.		<i>Illustrious Person.</i>
304	¶ Pope Marcellus.	Porphyrus, <i>d.</i>
—	Resignation of Diocletian and Maximian.	Alciphron, <i>Rhet., f.</i>
—	CONSTANTIUS and GALERIUS, 44th	
	and 45th emperors of Rome.—Constantius	
	obtains the West, and Galerius Italy,	
	Africa, and the remainder.	
306	CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, 46th	
	emperor of Rome—stops the persecution of	
	the Christians.	
310	¶ Pope Eusebius.	Lactantius, <i>f.</i>
—	¶ Pope Melchades.	Ossian, <i>Poet., f.</i>
313	Edict of Milan published by Constantine—	
	Christianity tolerated through the empire.	
314	¶ Pope Sylvester.	
325	Constantine abolishes the combats of Gladi-	
	ators.	
—	The first General Council held at Nice, in	
	Bithynia, where the doctrines of Arius are	
	condemned.	
326	St. Athanasius, bishop of Alexandria, intro-	
	duces Monachism in the Roman empire.	
329	Constantine removes the seat of empire to	
	Constantinople.	
336	¶ Pope Marcus.	Arius, <i>Presb., d.</i>
337	¶ Pope Julius I.	Eusebius, <i>Hist., f.</i>
—	Death of Constantine.—The empire divided	Donatus, <i>f.</i>
	among his three sons.	
—	CONSTANTINE II., CONSTANS, and	
	CONSTANTIUS, 47th, 48th and 49th	
	emperors of Rome.	
350	Constans murdered.—Magnentius assumes the	Eutropius, <i>Hist., f.</i>
	purple.	Libanius, <i>Soph., f.</i>
352	¶ Pope Liberius.	Julian, <i>Phil., f.</i>
356	¶ Pope Felix I.	Hilary, Bp. of Poitiers, <i>f.</i>
357	The Germans defeated by Julian at Strasburgh.	
358	¶ Pope Felix II.	
359	Council of Rimini held.	
361	Julian, 50th emperor of Rome—abjures Chris-	
	tianity, and is elected Pontifex Maximus.	
—	Julian attempts fruitlessly to rebuild the	
	Temple of Jerusalem.	
363	JOVIAN, 51st emperor of Rome.	Jamblichus, <i>Phil., d.</i>
364	VALENTINIAN emperor of the West.—	Aurel. Victor, <i>Hist., f.</i>
	VALENS emperor of the East.	Vegetius, <i>Hist., f.</i>
366	¶ Pope Damasus.	
367	GRATIAN emperor of the West.	
375	VALENTINIAN II. emperor of the West.	371 St. Athanasius, <i>d.</i>
376	Valens allows the Goths to settle in Thrace.	Eunapius, <i>f.</i>
378	The Goths advance to the gates of Constanti-	R. Festus Avienus, <i>f.</i>
	nople.—Death of Valens.	Pappus, <i>Math., f.</i>
379	THEODOSIUS THE GREAT emperor of	St. Basil, <i>d.</i>
	the East.	
381	Second General Council held at Constanti-	380 Ammian Marcel
	nople.	<i>Hist., d.</i>
383	The Huns overrun Mesopotamia,—are defeat-	Prudentius, <i>Poet., f.</i>
	ed by the Goths.	Claudian, <i>Poet., f.</i>
384	Symmachus pleads the cause of Paganism	
	against St. Ambrose in the senate.	

C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
5	¶ Pope Symricius.	389 Gregory Naz., <i>d.</i>
2	THEODOSIUS emperor of the West and East.	Ausonius, <i>Poet., d.</i>
5	Final division of the Roman empire between the sons of Theodosius the Great.—ARCADIUS emperor of the East, and HONORIUS emperor of the West.	
-	The Huns under Alaric invade the Eastern provinces.	
7	St. Chrysostom chosen patriarch of Constantinople.	St. Ambrose, <i>d.</i>
9	¶ Pope Anastasius.	Hesychius, <i>f.</i>
-	Gainas the Goth obtains honours from Arcadius.	Claudian, <i>f.</i>
•		Heliodorus, <i>Hist., f.</i>
-	Alaric the Goth ravages Italy.	Longus, <i>f.</i>
1	¶ Pope Innocent I.	Stobæus, <i>f.</i>
3	Stilicho, general of Honorius, defeats Alaric near Pollentia.	
4	FERGUS I. king of Scotland, supposed to have begun his reign.	
6	The Vandals, Alans, &c., invade France and Spain.	407 St. Chrysostom, <i>d.</i>
8	THEODOSIUS II. emperor of the East.	Servius, <i>Com. f.</i>
0	Rome sacked and burned by Alaric.—Death of Alaric.	Orosius, <i>Hist., f.</i>
1	The Vandals settled in Spain.	Numatianes, <i>f.</i>
6	The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.	
-	The Pelagian Heresy condemned by the bishops of Africa.	Macrobius, <i>Phil., d.</i>
7	¶ Pope Zozimus.	S. Honaratus, <i>Gr. f.</i>
8	¶ Pope Boniface I.	Socrates, <i>Ec. Hist., f.</i>
10	Pharamond first king of the Franks supposed to have begun his reign.	
12	¶ Pope Celestinus.	St. Jerome, <i>d.</i>
14	VALENTINIAN III. emperor of the West.	Sulp. Severus, <i>d.</i>
16	The Romans withdraw finally from Britain.	
18	Ætius, the Roman general, defeats the Franks and Goths.	Zozimus, <i>Hist., f.</i>
19	Genseric, the Vandal, crosses from Spain to Africa, with 80,000 men.	
31	The third General Council held at Ephesus.	430 St. Augustine, <i>d.</i>
32	¶ Pope Sixtus III.	Olympiodorus, <i>Hist. f.</i>
35	The Theodosian Code published.	Pelagius, <i>Her. d.</i>
39	Genseric the Vandal invades and plunders Italy.	Cœl. Sed. Scotus, <i>f.</i>
-	Eudisia the empress, wife of Theodosius, retires to Jerusalem.	
-	Carthage taken by the Vandals.—Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa.	
10	¶ Pope Leo the Great.	
12	Theodosius forced to make a disgraceful peace with Attila the Hun.	
-	Attila causes his brother Bleda to be murdered.	
15	The Britons in vain solicit the Romans to assist them against the Picts and Scots.	444 St. Cyril, <i>d.</i>
-	Attila the Hun overruns Illyrium, Thrace, Dacia, Mœsia, and Scythia.	Taliranus Epis. Mas. <i>f.</i>

<i>A. C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
448	The Romans engage to pay a heavy tribute of gold to Attila.	
449	<i>Merovæus king of the Franks.</i>	
450	MARCIAN emperor of the East.	
—	Attila ravages Germany and France.	
451	Theodoric king of the Visigoths killed in the battle of Chalons-sur-Marne, in which Attila is defeated.	
—	The Saxons arrive in Britain under Hengist and Horsa.	
—	The fourth General Council held at Chalcedon.	
452	Foundation of the city of Venice.	
455	PETRONIUS MAXIMUS emperor of the West.	
—	AVITUS emperor of the West.	
—	Rome taken and plundered by Genseric the Vandal.	
456	<i>Childerick king of the Franks.</i>	
457	LEO THE GREAT emperor of the East.	
—	MAJORIANUS emperor of the West.	
461	SEVERUS emperor of the West, raised by Ricimer.	460 Sozomen, <i>Hist.</i> , d. Eutyches, <i>f.</i>
—	¶ Pope Hilarius.	Agathias, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>f.</i>
467	ANATHEMIUS emperor of the West.	466 Prosper, <i>d.</i>
468	Euric king of the Visigoths drives the Romans out of Spain.	Victorius of Aquit., <i>f.</i>
—	¶ Pope Simplicius.	
470	Ælla the Saxon takes possession of the kingdom of Sussex.	
471	Ælla defeats all the British princes.	
472	Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, seen from Constantinople.	
—	OLYBIUS emperor of the West.	
473	GLYCERIUS emperor of the West, degraded and stripped by	
474	JULIUS NEPOS emperor of the West.	
—	ZENO emperor of the East.	
475	AUGUSTULUS ROMULUS emperor of the West, raised by his father Orestes, general to Nepos.	
476	Orestes put to death by Odoacer king of the Heruli.	Hierocles, <i>f.</i>
—	Rome taken by Odoacer, now king of Italy.	Q. Calabar, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>f.</i>
—	EXTINCTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE of the Romans, 507 years from the battle of Actium, and 1224 from the building of Rome.	
481	<i>Clovis king of the Franks.</i>	
—	Zeno makes Theodoric the Ostrogoth his general, and creates him consul.	482 Sidonius Apollin., <i>f.</i>
483	¶ Pope Felix III.	Simplicius, <i>Phil.</i> , <i>f.</i>
—	Litanies and bells first used.	
485	Battle of Soissons gained by Clovis.	
488	Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, entirely defeats Odoacer, and is acknowledged king of Italy by the emperor Zeno.	
490	The Burgundians, under Gondobald, ravage Italy.	
—	Ireland, called the Isle of Saints, famous for its schools.	

- C.*
 1 ANASTASIUS emperor of the East.
 2 ¶ Pope St. Gelasius I.
 3 Odoacer put to death by Theodoric.
 6 ¶ Pope Anastasius II.
 7 Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.
 8 ¶ Laurentius.
 - ¶ Pope Symmachus.
 9 Alliance between Clovis and Theodoric.
 0
 - Gondebald, the Burgundian, becomes tributary to Clovis.
 1 The Burgundian laws published by Gondebald.
 2 Cabades king of Persia ravages part of the Eastern empire.
 4 The Eastern empire makes peace with Cabades.
 7 Clovis defeats Alaric, the Visigoth, and receives a congratulatory embassy, with a diadem, from Anastasius.
 3 Theodoric the Great defeats Clovis in the battle of Arles, and then makes peace with him.
 - Arthur chosen Pendragon, or sovereign of the Cumbrian British kingdom.
) Clovis makes Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.
 1 Death of Clovis.—Division of his kingdom among his four sons.
 - Childebert, Thierry, Clotaire, and Clodomir, kings of the Franks.
 2 The Heruli allowed by Anastasius to settle in Thrace.
 1 ¶ Pope Hormisdas.
) Arthur king of the Britons supposed to have begun his reign.
) The computation of Time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk.
) The Getæ ravage Illyrium, Macedonia, and Epirus.
) JUSTIN I. emperor of the East, raised from obscurity.
) Justin restores the Orthodox bishops, and condemns the Eutychians.
 - Cabades king of Persia proposes that Justin should adopt his son Cosroes, and makes war on a refusal.
) ¶ Pope John I.
) The Arian bishops deposed by Justin,—highly resented by Theodoric.
 - Antioch and many other cities almost destroyed by an earthquake, but rebuilt by Justin.—He adopts his nephew Justinian.
) Theodoric puts to death Boethius and Symmachus.
 - ¶ Pope Felix IV.
 - Extreme unction introduced.
) JUSTINIAN I. emperor of the East.
) Belisarius, general of Justinian, defeats the Persians.
- Illustrious Persons.*
 St. Patrick, *d.*
 492 Gennadius, *a.*
 Malchus, *Soph., f.*
 Aloysius, *Archit., f.*
 Zozimus, *Hist., d.*
 Steph. Byzantium, *f.*
 Proclus, *Phil., f.*
 Priscian, *f.*
 Hesychius, *Hist., f.*
 Festus Pompeius, *Gram., f.*
 Non. Marcellus, *Gram., f.*
 Alc. Avitus, *Poet., f.*
 Boethius, *Phil., d.*
 Fulgentius, *d.*
 Tribonianus, *f.*

<i>A.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
529	The Books of the Civil Law published by Justinian.	Achilles Tatius, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
530	¶ Pope Boniface II.	
532	Justinian congratulates Cosroes on succeeding to the throne of Persia, and concludes a perpetual peace with him.	
—	Great insurrection at Constantinople quelled with prodigious slaughter by Belisarius.	
533	Athalaric king of the Ostrogoths dying, is succeeded by his mother Amalasonta.	Procopius, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
—	¶ Pope John II.	Marcellinus, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
534	<i>Theodobert king of Metz.</i>	Jo. Philoponus, f.
—	Belisarius defeats Gelimer and the Vandals in Africa.	Anthemius, <i>Arch. of St. Sophia at Constantinople.</i>
535	¶ Pope Agapetus.	
536	¶ Pope Sylvester.	
537	Belisarius subdues the Ostrogoths in Italy, and takes Rome.	
538	¶ Pope Vigilius.	
540	Belisarius refuses to accept the crown of Italy.	Dionysius the monk, d.
542	Arthur, king of the Cumbrian Britons, killed in the battle of Camlan.	
543	Totila, the Goth, recovers Italy from the Romans.	
547	Totila takes and plunders Rome.	
—	Ida the Saxon lands at Flamborough, subdues the country from the Humber to the Forth, and founds the Northumbrian kingdom.	
548	<i>Theodebald king of Metz.</i>	
549	Rome retaken by Belisarius.	
550	Commencement of the kingdom of Poland under Lechus.	
—	Rome recovered by Totila.	
551	The manufacture of silk introduced into Europe.	552 Jornandes, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
553	The fifth General Council held at Constantinople.	
—	Totila defeated by Narses, and put to death.	
—	Silk worms introduced from China.	
555	¶ Pope Pelagius I.	
558	The Huns breaking into Thrace, are defeated by Belisarius.	
559	Belisarius degraded, and ungratefully used by Justinian.	
—	<i>Clotaire sole king of France.</i>	
560	¶ Pope John III.	
—	Belisarius restored to his honours and command.	
562	<i>Caribert, Gontran, Sigebert, and Chilperic, kings of France.</i>	Cassiodorus, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
565	JUSTIN II. emperor of the East.	Belisarius, d.
—	The Picts converted to Christianity by St. Columba.	Agathias, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
566	Narses, recalled from Italy, invites the Lombards to take possession of the country.	
568	Italy conquered by the Lombards under Alboin.	570 Gildas, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
571	Birth of Mahomet the false prophet.	Jo. Malala, <i>Hist.</i> , f.
		Evagrius, <i>Hist.</i> , f.

<i>A.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
574 ¶	Pope Benedict I.	
578	TIBERIUS II. emperor of the East	
—	¶ Pope Pelagius II.	
580	The Latin tongue ceases to be spoken in Italy about this time.	
582	MAURICE emperor of the East.	
584	<i>Clotaire II. king of Soissons.</i>	
590	Antioch again destroyed, with 30,000 inhabitants, by an earthquake.	
—	¶ Pope Gregory the Great.	595 Gregory of Tours, <i>Hist., d.</i>
596	<i>Thierry II. and Theodobert II. kings of Paris and Austrasia.</i>	Vanantius Fortunatus, <i>Poet, and Hist., f.</i>
—	Augustine the Monk converts the Saxons to Christianity.	
600		
602	PHOCAS, emperor of the East, acknowledges the supremacy of the popes.	
604 ¶	Pope Sabinianus.	605 Augustine, 1st Abp. of Canterbury, <i>d.</i>
607 ¶	Pope Boniface III.	
—	The pantheon at Rome dedicated to God, the Virgin, and all the Saints.	
608 ¶	Pope Boniface IV.	
609	The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.	
611	HERACLIUS emperor of the East.	
613	The French Maires du Palais first introduced by Clotaire as Regents.	
614	<i>Clotaire II. sole king of France.</i>	
—	Queen Brunehilda, accused of numberless crimes, is put to death by Clotaire II.	
615 ¶	Pope Deus-dedit.	
616	Jerusalem taken by the Persians under Cosroes II.	Secundus, <i>Lomb. Hist., f.</i>
618 ¶	Pope Boniface V.	Philoponus, <i>f.</i>
622	Era of the Hegyra, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina, July 16.	
625 ¶	Pope Honorius I.	
—	The Persians under Cosroes II. with the Huns, Abari, and Sclavonians, besiege Constantinople.	
628	<i>Dagobert and Charibert kings of France.</i>	
632	Abubeker succeeds Mahomet as caliph of the Saracens.	Mahomet, <i>Prophet, d.</i>
—	Era of Yezdejird III., or Persian Era.	
633	Abubeker dies, and is succeeded by Omar in the caliphate.	
636	Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it 463 years.	Isidorus <i>Hisp. d.</i>
—	The Koran published.	Theophylactus Simocata, <i>Hist., f.</i>
638	<i>Sigebert II. and Clovis II. kings of France.</i>	John of Alexan. (Philoponus), <i>Gram., f.</i>
640 ¶	Pope Severinus.	P. Eginetus, <i>Phys., f.</i>
—	¶ Pope John IV.	
—	The library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burned by the Saracens.	
—	The Slavi found the kingdom of Servia and Croatia.	
641	CONSTANTINE, emperor of the East for a few months, poisoned by his stepmother.	George Pisida, <i>Hist., d.</i>

A.C.

641 HERACLIONAS and TIBERIUS III. emperors of the East

642 CONSTANS II. (son of Constantine) emperor of the East.

— ¶ Pope Theodorus.

645 Othman succeeds Omar in the caliphate.

648 Cyprus taken by the Saracens under Mawia.

649 ¶ Pope Martin I.

653 The Saracens take Rhodes, and destroy the Colossus.

654 Childeric II. king of Austrasia.

— ¶ Pope Eugenius I.

655 Ali caliph of Arabia.—Moawiah caliph of Egypt. Ildefonsus, *Hist.*, f.

657 ¶ Pope Vitalianus.

658 The Saracens obtain peace of the emperor Constans, and agree to pay a yearly tribute.

661 Moawiah first Ommeiyadian caliph.

668 CONSTANTINE IV. (Pogonatus) emperor of the East.

669 Sicily ravaged by the Saracens.

672 ¶ Pope Adeodatus.

— The Saracens ineffectually besiege Constantinople.—Their fleet destroyed by the Greek fire used by Callinicus.

Paul Aegineta, *Med.*,
Callinicus, *Math.*,
inv. of the Gre
Fire.

675 The Saracens attempt to land in Spain, but are repulsed by Wamba king of the Visigoths.

676 ¶ Pope Donus.

79 Thierry IV. king of all France.

— ¶ Pope Agatho.

680 The sixth General or Œcumenical Council of Constantinople. Adamnanus Scot. *H.*
f.

682 ¶ Pope Leo II.

684 ¶ Pope Benedict II.

685 ¶ Pope John V.

— JUSTINIAN II. emperor of the East.

— The Britons totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.

— Egfrid the Saxon penetrates northward to Angus, but is slain by Bredei the Pictish king.

686 ¶ Pope Conon.

— Ceadwalla king of Wessex subdues Sussex and Kent.

687 ¶ Pope Sergius.

690 Pepin Heristal, *Maire du Palais*, defeats Thierry and acquires the chief power in France.

692 Clovis III. king of France.

695 Justinian II. dethroned, mutilated, and banished by Julian, of Tolido, *H.*
f.

— LEONTIUS emperor of the East.

— Childebert III. king of France.

698 Leontius dethroned and mutilated by Apsimar, who succeeds as

— TIBERIUS emperor of the East.

699 The Saracens defeated by John the Patrician.

A.C.
700

— The Saracens again defeated with great slaughter by Heraclius, brother of Tiberius.

701 ¶ Pope John VI.

705 Justinian II. escapes from prison, defeats Tiberius, and is restored to the throne.

707 Justinian II. defeated by the Bulgarians.

708 ¶ Pope Sisinnius.

— ¶ Pope Constantine.

711 PHILIPPICUS BARDANES emperor of the East.

— *Dagobert III. king of France.*

713 ANASTASIUS II. emperor of the East.

— Spain conquered by the Saracens under Muca, the general of the caliph Walid.

714 ¶ Pope Gregory II.

715 Charles Martel, *Maire du Palais*, governs all France for twenty-six years.— *Childeric II. king of France.*

716 THEODOSIUS III. emperor of the East.

718 LEO (the Isaurian) emperor of the East.

720 Omar II. besieges Constantinople without success.

— *Thierry IV. king of France.*

726 Leo forbids the worship of images, which leads to the loss of nearly all the Greek possessions in Italy.

728 Leo orders pope Gregory to be seized, and sent to Constantinople; but the order is frustrated, and Leo confiscates the imperial domains of Sicily and Calabria.

729 The Saracens ravage Gallia Narbonnensis.

731 ¶ Pope Gregory III.

732 Charles Martel defeats the Saracens between Tours and Poitiers.

736 Leo persecutes the monks.

737 Death of Pelagius who preserved the Christian monarchy in Asturia.

740 The duchy of Spoleto seized by the Normans.—Recovered by the pope.

741 CONSTANTINE V. (Cepronimus) emperor of the East.—Enemy to images and saint-worship.

— ¶ Pope Zachary.

742 *Childeric III. king of France.*

743 Constantine defeats and puts to death Artabazus, who had seized Constantinople.

745 Constantine destroys the Saracen fleet.

749 The race of the Abassides become caliphs of the Saracens.

751 *Pepin (le Bref) king of France, founder of the second or Carlovingian race.*

752 ¶ Pope Stephen II. (four days.)

— ¶ Pope Stephen III.

753 Astolphus king of the Lombards erects the dukedom of Ravenna, and claims from the pope the dukedom of Rome.

Illustrious Persons.
Achab. Sar. Con., d.709 Adelmus, *Poet.*, l.

Muca, Saracen, d.

735 Bede, *Hist.*, d.Fredigaire, *Hist.*, f.
Winifred of Essex,
Apostle of Ger-
many, f.

A.C.

- 754 Pope Stephen requests the assistance of Pepin against the Lombards.
Pepin invades Italy, and strips Astolphus of his new possessions, conferring them on the pope as a temporal sovereignty.
Almanzor caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.
- 756 Desiderius or Didier proclaimed king of the Lombards, with the pope's consent.
- Abderrahman I. takes the title of king of Cordova, and is the founder of the splendid dominion of the Moors in Spain.
- 757 ¶ Pope Paul I. renews the alliance with Desiderius.
- 759 ¶ Pope Stephen III. quarrels with Desiderius.
- 762 Almanzor builds Bagdat, and makes it the seat of the empire of the caliphs.
- 767 The Turks ravage Asia Minor.
- 768 *Charles (the Great) and Carloman kings of France.*
- ¶ Pope Stephen IV.
- 770 Constantine dissolves the monasteries in the East.
- 772 *Charlemagne sole monarch of France.*
- Charlemagne makes war against the Saxons.
- ¶ Pope Adrian I.
- 774 Charlemagne defeats Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, which had subsisted 206 years.
- 775 LEO IV. emperor of the East.
- 778 Battle of Roncesvalles between the Christians and Moors in Spain, where Rolando is killed.
- 779 Charlemagne grants tithes for the maintenance of the church, schools, and the poor.
- 780 CONSTANTINE VI. (Porphyrôgenitus) emperor of the East.
- Irene, empress, regent in her son's minority, keeps him in entire subjection.
- Irene re-establishes the worship of images.
- 785 Charlemagne subdues the Saxons.
- Harun al Rashid caliph of the Saracens.
- Harun al Rashid invades and ravages a part of the empire.
- 786 Constantine assumes the government of the empire, and imprisons his mother.
- 787 The Danes under their pirate chiefs, or Vikings, for the first time, land in England.
- The seventh general council, or second of Nice, is held.
- 788 Irene puts to death her son Constantine, and is proclaimed sole empress.
- 794 Charlemagne utterly extirpates the Huns.
- 795 ¶ Pope Leo III.
- 797 The Saracens ravage Cappadocia, Cyprus, Rhodes, &c.

Illustrious Persons.

760 Jo. Damascenus, a

793 Geo. Syncellus
Chron., f.

800

- NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST.—Charlemagne crowned emperor at Rome.

- A.C.
- 801 Irene proposes to marry Charlemagne, which being disapproved of by her subjects, she is dethroned, and confined to a monastery.
- 802 NICEPHORUS emperor of the East.—Here begins the Lower or Greek empire.
- 807 Harun al Rashid courts the alliance of Charlemagne.
- 811 Nicephorus associates his son Stauracius in the empire—slain by the Bulgarians.
- MICHAEL (Curopalates) emperor of the East.
- 813 LEO V. (the Armenian) emperor of the East.
- Almamun, caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.
- 814 Louis (le Débonnaire) emperor and king of France.
- 816 The Eastern Empire ravaged by earthquakes, famine, conflagrations, &c.
- ¶ Pope Stephen V.
- 817 ¶ Pope Pascal I.
- Louis (le Déb.) divides the empire among his sons.
- 821 MICHAEL II. (Balbus or the Stammerer) emperor of the East.
- 824 ¶ Pope Eugene II.
- 827 Egbert unites the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy.—Beginning of the kingdom of England.
- ¶ Pope Valentine.
- 828 ¶ Pope Gregory IV.
- 829 THEOPHILUS emperor of the East.
- 837 Æthelwulf king of England.
- 838 The Scots under Kenneth entirely subdue the Picts.
- 840 LOTHARIUS emperor of Germany.
- Charles (the Bald) king of France.
- 841 Lotharius defeated by his two brothers in the battle of Fontenai, and deposed.
- 842 LEWIS (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.
- MICHAEL III. emperor of the East.
- 843 The Normans plunder the city of Rouen.
- Kenneth M'Alpin king of Scots subdues the Pictish kingdom, and unites it to the Scottish.
- 844 ¶ Pope Sergius II.
- 845 The Normans plunder Hamburgh, and penetrate into Germany.
- 847 ¶ Pope Leo IV.
- 848 The Venetian fleet destroyed by the Saracens.
- 851 ¶ Pope Joan, supposed to have filled the papal chair for two years.
- Basilus associated emperor of the East.
- 855 LEWIS II. emperor of Germany.
- 858 Æthelbald II. king of England.
- ¶ Pope Nicholas I.
- 861 Æthelbert king of England.
- 866 Æthelred king of England.
- 867 The Danes ravage England.
- Illustrious Persons.*
 Paul Warefridus, Diaconus, *Hist., d.*
 Mesue, *Arab. Med., f.*
 804 Alcuin, *Hist., d.*
 Charlemagne, *d.*
 836 Arnoin, *Hist., d.*
 Albumazar, *Ast., f.*
 Eginhard, *Hist., d.*
 Achmet, *Ast., f.*
 Abp. Turpin, *f.*
 856 Rabanus Maurus, *d.*
 Nennius, *Hist., f.*

A.C.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
867 BASILIUS sole emperor of the East.	
— ¶ Pope Adrian II.	
— Photius, patriarch of Constantinople, excommunicates pope Adrian.	
869 The <i>eighth</i> General Council held at Constantinople.	
872 Ælfred (the Great) king of England.	870 Godescalcus, <i>d.</i>
— ¶ Pope John VIII.	874 Ado, <i>Hist., d.</i>
875 CHARLES (the Bald) emperor of Germany.	
— Harold Harfager unites the provinces of Norway, conquers Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, and appoints Earls to govern them.	
877 LEWIS (the Stammerer) emperor of Germany and king of France.	878 Hubba, <i>Dane, d.</i>
879 Louis III. and Carloman kings of France.	
— The kingdom of Arles begins.	
880 CHARLES (the Gross) emperor of Germany and king of France.	
— Ravages of the Normans in France.	
882 ¶ Pope Marinus.	Hincmarus, <i>a.</i>
884 ¶ Pope Adrian III.	883 Scotus Erigena.
886 LEO VI. (the Philosopher) emperor of the East.	Anastacius, <i>Lab., d.</i>
— The University of Oxford founded by Alfred.	Nicetas, <i>Hist., f.</i>
887 ARNOLD emperor of Germany.	Alfred, <i>f.</i>
— The Normans besiege Paris, which is gallantly defended by bishop Goselin and count Eudes.	Abbo, <i>Poet, f.</i>
888 Eudes or Odo king of France.	
890 Alfred the Great composes his code of Laws, and divides England into Counties, Hundreds, and Tithings.	
891 ¶ Pope Formosus.	
896 ¶ Pope Stephen VII.	
897 Pope John IX.	
898 Charles III. (<i>the Simple</i>) king of France.	
900	
— ¶ Pope Benedict IV.	
— LEWIS IV. emperor of Germany.	
901 Æthwart I. (the Elder son of Alfred) king of England.	
904 ¶ Pope Leo V.	
905 ¶ Pope Sergius III.	
911 CONRAD I. emperor of Germany.	909 Asser, <i>Hist., d.</i>
— CONSTANTINE VII. (Porphyrogenitus) emperor of the East.	
912 The Normans are established in Normandy under Rollo.	
913 ¶ Pope Anastasius.	
914 ¶ Pope Landon.	
915 CONSTANTINE and ROMANUS emperors of the East.	
— ¶ Pope John X.	
— The University of Cambridge founded by Edward the Elder.	
920 HENRY (the Fowler) emperor of Germany.	
923 Rodolph king of France.	
925 Æthelstan king of England.	

masons' lodges first established in England, and spread over Europe.

Pope Leo VI.

Pope Stephen VIII.

Pope John XI.

se of the Republic of Pisa.

ry of Geneva overrun by the Saracens.

HO (the Great) emperor of Germany.

Pope Leo VII.

us IV. (*d'Outremer*) king of France

Pope Stephen IX.

wel-Dha king of Wales, an eminent law-
giver.

nunt I. king of England.

Pope Marinus XIII.

Pope Agapet.

rd king of England.

harius king of France.

up king of England.

Pope John XII.

MANUS II. emperor of the East.

1st king of England.

Pope Leo VIII.

CÉPHORUS PHOCAS emperor of the
East.

io the Great conquers Italy.

Pope John XIII.

bioch recovered from the Saracens by Nice-
phorus.

HN ZIMISCES emperor of the East.

Pope Benedict VI.

HO II. emperor of Germany.

Pope Boniface VII.

aneth III. annexes the Britons of Strath-
luyd to the Scottish kingdom.

Pope Benedict VII.

SILIUS II. and CONSTANTINE IX. emperors of the East.

ward II. (the Martyr) king of England.

1st king of England.

HO III. emperor of Germany.

Pope John XIV.

Pope John XV.

us V. (*le Fainéant*) king of France.

gh Capet, king of France, founder of the
rd race of the French kings.

Arabic numeral ciphers first introduced
into Europe.

bert (*the Wise*) king of France.

Pope Gregory V.

Pope Sylvester II. (Gerbert.)

NRV II. emperor of Germany.

at massacre of the Danes by Ethelred king
f England.

Pope John XVI.

Pope John XVII. (Secco.)

Pope John XVIII. (Phasian.)

Illustrious Persons.

Azophi, *Arab. Ast., f.*

942 Eudes de Cluni, *d.*

Alfarabius, *Arab. Ast., f.*

Geber, *Arab. Ast., f.*

970 Luitprand, *Hist., d.*

Albirunius, *Arab. Geog., f.*

St. Dunstan, *d.*

Gerbert (Pope Sylves-
ter II.), *d.*
Abbo of Fleury, *hed., d.*

A.C.		Illustrious Persons.
1005	Churches first built in the Gothic style.	
1009	† Pope Sergius IV. (Porci.)	1008 Aimoin, <i>Hist.</i>
1012	† Pope Benedict VIII.	1010 Rhazes, <i>Ar Phys.</i> , d.
1013	Swain, the Dane, usurps the throne of England.	
1014	Canute, son of Swain, king of Mercia.	
1015	The Manichean doctrines prevalent in France and Italy.	
1016	Edmund II. (Ironside) king of England.	
—	Six battles fought with the Danes under Canute in England.	
1017	Canute the Dane (the Great) king of all England.	
1018	The Normans invade Italy.	Leo, <i>Gram.</i> , f.
1024	† Pope John XIX. (Romain.)	Guido Aretino, <i>Mo f.</i> , inv. of Mus Scale.
—	CONRAD II. (the Salic) emperor of Germany.	
1025	Musical characters invented by Guido Aretino.	1029 Fulbert of Chartres, d.
1028	ROMANUS III. (Argyrus) emperor of the East.	
1031	Henry I. king of France.	
1033	† Pope Benedict IX. (Theophylatus.)	
1034	MICHAEL IV. emperor of the East.	Avicenna, <i>Arab. Mo f.</i>
1036	Harold I. (son of Canute) king of England.	
1039	HENRY III. emperor of Germany.	
—	Canute II. or Hardicanute king of England.	
—	Macbeth usurps the throne of Scotland, by the murder of Duncan.	
1041	Edward III. (The Confessor) king of England, restores the Saxon line.	
—	MICHAEL V. (Calaphales) emperor of the East.	
—	The Normans settle in south Italy—conquer Apulia.	
1042	CONSTANTINE X. (Monomachus) emperor of the East.	
1043	The Turks, under Tangrolipix, subdue Persia.	
1045	† Pope Gregory VI. (John Gratian.)	Campanes of New Ast., f.
1046	† Pope Clement II. (Suidger.)	Glaber-Rad, <i>Hist.</i>
1048	† Pope Damasus II. (Poppo.)	Herman-Contractus, <i>Math.</i> , d.
1049	† Pope Leo IX. (Bruno) the first pope who maintained a regular army.	Franco, <i>Math.</i> , f.
1054	THEODORA, empress of the East.	Geo. Cedrinus, <i>H f.</i>
—	Pope Leo IX. taken prisoner by the Normans.	
1055	† Pope Victor II. (Gebhard.)	
—	The Turks take Bagdat, and overturn the empire of the Caliphs.	
1056	HENRY IV. emperor of Germany.	
1057	MALCOLM III. (Canmore) king of Scotland.	
—	ISAAC I. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	
—	† Pope Stephen X.	Guido of Amiens, <i>l f.</i>
1058	† Pope Nicholas II.	Michael Cerularius
—	The Saracens driven out of Sicily by Robert Guiscard the Norman.	Michael Pselus
1059	CONSTANTINE XI. (Ducas) emperor of the East.	<i>Phil.</i> , f.
1060	Philip I. king of France.	Baldwin, Earl Flanders.
1061	Rise of the Guelphs' and Ghibellines' faction.	

Illustrious Persons.

Henry IV. of Germany on his knees asks pardon of the pope.

|| Pope Alexander II. (Anselm Badage.)

The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.

Harold II. king of England, reigned nine months.

William (the Conqueror) king of England.

ROMANUS III. (Diogenes) emperor of the East.

Edgar Atheling seeks refuge in Scotland.

Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, married to Malcolm king of Scotland.

The feudal law introduced into England.

MICHAEL VII. (Ducas), ANDRONICUS I., and CONSTANTINE X. joint-emperors of the East.

| Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand.)

The emperor Henry IV. excommunicated and deposed by the pope.

VICEPHORUS (Baton) emperor of the East.

Doomsday-book begun by William the Conqueror.

ALEXIUS I. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.

Henry IV. emperor besieges Rome.

Henry IV. re-crowned emperor of Germany.

| Pope Victor III. (Didier.)

William II. (Rufus) king of England.

| Pope Urban II. (Odo Bp. of Ostia.)

St. Margaret queen of Scotland died.

DONALD BANE king of Scotland.

DUNCAN II. king of Scotland.

Institution of the order of the Knights of Jerusalem.

The first Crusade to the Holy Land.—Peter the Hermit.

Newcastle-on-Tyne built by Malcolm Canmore.

Magnus Barefoot, king of Norway, reduces Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, to complete subjection to his crown.

The Crusaders take Antioch.

EDGAR king of Scotland.

Jerusalem taken by Godfrey of Boulogne.—

The Knights of St. John instituted.

Pope Paschal II. (Rainer.)

Henry I. (Beauclerc) king of England.

Ruiscard of Normandy takes the title of king of Naples.

Baldwin king of Jerusalem takes Ptolemais.

HENRY V. emperor of Germany.

ALEXANDER I. king of Scotland.

Louis VI. (le Gros) king of France.

|| Pope Gelasius II. (John of Gaeta.)

The order of Knights Templars instituted.

JOHN I. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.

| Pope Calixtus II.

The ninth General Council—of Lateran.

DAVID I. king of Scotland.

7 Pope Honorius II. (Lambert.)

Suidas, *Lex.*, f.

Roswitha, *Nun.*

Ingulphus, *Hist.*

Const. Afer, *Med.*, f.

1072 Peter Damiani, d.

Matilda Countess of Tuscany.

William of Spiers,

Math., f.

William of Apulia,

Poet., f.

1086 Marianus Scotus, d.

Berenger, *Poet of Provence*, d.

1089 Abp. Lanfranc, d.

Gualfredo of Sienna,

Poet., f.

Peter the Hermit.

Godfrey of Boulogne.

Rascellinus of Compeigne.

Rodrigo the Cid, d.

1105 Raymont Count of Thoulouse, *Poet.*, d.

Nathan Ben Jechiel, d.

1109 Abp. Anselm, d.

1110 Alhazen, *Math.*, f.

1113 Sigebert, *Hist.*, d.

Anna Comnena, *Hist.*, f.

Laurenzio, of Verona,

Poet., f.

Gunther, *Germ. Poet.*, f.

A.C.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1125 LOTHARIUS II. emperor of Germany.	Tograi, Hariri, Sharfadin, Arab. Poets.
1130 ¶ Pope Innocent II. (Gregory of Papi.)	
1135 Stephen king of England.	
1137 Louis VII. (le Jeune) king of France, married to Eleanor of Guienne.	Will. of Malembury, <i>Hist., f.</i>
— The Pandects of the Roman law discovered at Amalphi.	
1138 CONRAD III. emperor of Germany.	
— The Scots, under David I., defeated by the English in the battle of the Standard.	
1139 The <i>tenth</i> General Council—of Lateran.	
— Alphonso I. king of Portugal, rescues that kingdom from the Saracens.	
1140 The Canon Law first introduced into England.	
1141 Stephen king of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln by the troops of Matilda.	
1143 Stephen recovers his kingdom.	
— ¶ Pope Cælestin II. (Guy Car. of St. Mark.)	
— MANUEL (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	Peter Abelard, <i>d.</i>
1144 ¶ Pope Lucius II. (Gerard Card. of Prus.)	
1145 ¶ Pope Eugene III. (Abbot Bernard.)	Gratian, <i>Monk, f.</i>
1147 The second Crusade excited by St. Bernard.	
1150 The study of the Civil Law revived at Bologna.	
1151 The Canon Law is collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.	
1152 FREDERIC I. (Barbarossa) emperor of Germany.	
1153 MALCOLM IV. king of Scotland.	
— ¶ Pope Anastasius IV. (Conrad Bp. of Sabine.)	
— Treaty of Winchester.—Compromise between king Stephen and Prince Henry.	
1154 HENRY II. (Plantagenet) king of England.	
— ¶ Pope Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspear.)	
— The parties of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, disturb Italy.	St. Bernard, <i>d.</i> Ben Edris of Nubia, <i>Geog., f.</i> Eustathius, <i>Com. on Hom., f.</i> Sylvester Gerald, <i>Hist., f.</i>
1157 The bank of Venice instituted.	
1158 Interview between Henry II. and Malcolm IV. at Carlisle.	Geoff. of Monmouth, <i>f.</i>
1159 ¶ Pope Alexander III. (Roland of Bandinelli.)	
1160 The Albigenses maintain heretical doctrines.	1163 Eloisa, <i>d.</i> Peter Lombard, <i>d.</i> Aben Ezra, <i>Theol., f.</i> Hen. of Huntingdon, <i>f.</i>
1164 Institution of the order of Teutonic Knights in Germany,	
— T. Becket condemned by the Council of Clarendon.	
1165 WILLIAM (the Lion) king of Scotland.	1166 Aelred, <i>Hist., d.</i>
1171 T. Becket murdered at Canterbury.	
1172 Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.	Ran. de Granville, <i>f.</i> Joseph of Exeter, <i>f.</i>
1177 Justices of Assize in England first appointed about this time.	
1179 The <i>eleventh</i> General Council—of Lateran.	
1180 Philip Augustus king of France.	
— ALEXIUS II. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	
1181 ¶ Pope Lucius III. (Abald Card. of St. Praxade.)	

ANDRONICUS (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i> Walter de Mapes, <i>f.</i>
Pope Urban III. (Hubert Crivelli.)	
SAAC ANGELUS emperor of the East.	
Pope Gregory VIII. (Oct. 20.)	
The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.	John of Salisbury, <i>d.</i>
Pope Clement III. (P. Scolaro. Dec. 19.)	Brito Armoricus,
Richard I. (Cœur de Lion) king of England.	<i>Poet, f.</i>
The third Crusade under Richard I. and Philip Augustus.	Giraldus Cambrensis, <i>f.</i>
HENRY VI. emperor of Germany.	Will. of Newburgh, <i>f.</i>
[Pope Celestin III. (Hy. Bobocard.)	Wernerus, <i>d.</i>
Richard I. defeats Saladin in the battle of Ascalon.	Roger of Hoveden, <i>Hist.</i>
Ruy of Lusignan king of Jerusalem.	
ALEXIUS III. (ANGELUS the Tyrant) emperor of the East.	
PHILIP emperor of Germany.	
Pope Innocent III. (Card. Lothaire.)	
John king of England.	
The fourth Crusade sets out from Venice.	Ville Hardouin, <i>Hist., f.</i>
Constantinople taken by the French and Venetians.	Peter of Blois, <i>Hist., d.</i>
ALEXIUS IV. and MURBZUPHLUS emperors of the East.	Gerv. of Canterbury, <i>f.</i>
ALDWIN I. emperor of Constantinople, and THEODORE I. (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.	Saxo Grammaticus, <i>Hist., f.</i>
The Inquisition established by pope Innocent III.	Ralph de Direto, <i>Hist., f.</i>
HENRY emperor of Constantinople.	Walter of Coventry.
THO IV. emperor of Germany.	
London incorporated, obtains a charter for electing its Mayor and Magistrates.	Averrhoes, <i>Med., d.</i>
Crusade against the Albigenses, under Montfort.	Maimonides of Cornuba, <i>d.</i>
FREDERIC II. emperor of Germany.	Ph. Gaultier de Chatillon, <i>Poet, f.</i>
ALEXANDER II. king of Scotland.	
The twelfth General Council of Lateran, at Rome.	
Magna Charta signed by king John.	
Henry III. king of England.	
ETER and JOHN DUCAS emperors of the East.	
Pope Honorius III. (Savelli.)	
Fifth Crusade under Andrew II. of Hungary.	
ROBERT emperor of the East.	
Amietta taken by the Crusaders.	
St. Louis VIII. king of France.	
Institution of the orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis.	1224 Raymond of Thou-louse, <i>d.</i>
Louis IX. king of France.	
Pope Gregory IX. (Ugolino.)	
Angiskian and the Tartars overrun the empire of the Saracens.	
ALDWIN II. French emperor of Constantinople.	Angiskian, <i>d.</i> Abp. Langton, <i>d.</i>

A. C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1234	The Inquisition committed to the Dominican monks.	
1237	Russia brought under subjection by the Tartars.	
1240	Sixth Crusade under Frederic II. and Richard Earl of Cornwall.	
1241	¶ Pope Cælestin IV. (Castiglione.)	Snorro Sturleson, the <i>Edda</i> , d.
1243	¶ Pope Innocent IV. (Fiesco.)	1244 Jo. de Sacrobosco, d.
1245	The <i>thirteenth</i> General Council, held at Lyons.	Alex. Halensis, d.
—	The emperor Frederick deposed.	William of Britany, <i>Poet</i> , f.
1248	The seventh Crusade under St. Louis.	Nicholas de Bray, <i>Poet</i> , f.
1249	ALEXANDER III. king of Scotland.	1250 Albufaragi, <i>Hist.</i> , f.—d. 1286.
1251	CONRAD IV. emperor of Germany.	
1254	¶ Pope Alexander IV. (Reinald.)	
—	Interregnum in the empire of Germany, from the death of Conrad IV. in 1254, to the election of Rodolph in 1273.	
1255	THEODORE II. (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.	
1258	Bagdat taken by the Tartars.—End of the empire of the Saracens.	
—	Famous parliament at Oxford—the 24 barons, under Simon de Montfort, seize and administer the government of England.	
1259	JOHN (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.	Mat. Paris, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
1260	MICHAEL (Palæologus) emperor of Nicæa.	Robert of Glo'ster, the first English writer in rhyme.
—	The Flagellants preach baptism with blood.	
1261	¶ Pope Urban IV. (Panteleon.)	
—	The Greek emperors recover Constantinople from the French.	
1263	The Norwegians invade Scotland, and are defeated by Alexander III. in the battle of Largs.	
1265	¶ Pope Clement IV. (Foulquois.)	Montfort, Earl of Leicester, d.
—	First regular parliament in England, deputies summoned by writs to parliament.	
—	Henry III. of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lewes.	
—	Charles count of Anjou king of Sicily.	
1270	The eighth and last Crusade.—St. Louis dies before Tunis.	
—	Philip III. (the Bold) king of France.	Nic. Pisano, f. of mod. Ital. Sculpt., d.
1271	¶ Pope Gregory X. (Thibaud.)	Marco Pola, Trav.
1272	Edward I. (Longshanks) king of England.	Elmakin, Arab. Hist., d.
1273	RODOLPH (of Hapsburg) emperor of Germany, first of the Austrian family.	
1274	The <i>fourteenth</i> General Council held at Lyons—the Greek and Latin churches re-united.	St. T. Aquinas, d.
1276	¶ Pope Innocent V. (Tarentaise.)	St. Bonaventura, d.
—	¶ Pope Adrian V. (Ottonboni.)	
—	¶ Pope John XXI. (Peter Bp. of Tusculum.)	
1277	¶ Pope Nicholas III. (Gætan.)	
1281	¶ Pope Martin IV. (St. Cæcilia.)	1280 Albertus Mag., <i>Phil.</i> , d.
1282	The Sicilian Vespers, when 8000 French were massacred in Sicily in one night.	
1283	ANDRONICUS II. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	Joannes a Janua, Gr., f.
—	The conquest of Wales by Edward I.	
1285	¶ Pope Honorius IV. (Savelli.)	1284 Roger Bacon, <i>Phil.</i> , d.
—	Philip IV. (the Fair) king of France.	

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1286	MARGARET (of Norway) queen of Scotland.	Thomas Lermont, of
1288	¶ Pope Nicholas IV.	Ercildowne, called
1290	Interregnum in Scotland for two years.—	"Thomas the
	Competition between Bruce and Baliol for	Rhymers," <i>S. Poet., f.</i>
	the crown, decided by Edward I.	Arnold di Lapo, <i>f. of</i>
1291	Ptolemais taken by the Turks.—End of the	<i>mod. Ital. Archt., j.</i>
	Crusades.	
1292	JOHN BALIOL king of Scotland.	
	— ADOLPHUS (of Nassau) emperor of Germany.	
	— ¶ Pope Cælestin V. (Peter de Mouron.)	
1293	Jubilee first celebrated at Rome.	
	— From this year there is a regular succession of	
	English Parliaments.	
1294	Pope Boniface VIII. (B. Caietan.)	
1295	MICHAEL ANDRONICUS joint emperor	Brunetto, <i>Lat. Rhet., d</i>
	of the East.	
1296	Interregum in Scotland for eight years.—Sir	
	William Wallace nobly supports the liberty	
	of his country, defeats the English at Stir-	
	ling, and drives them out of the kingdom.	
1297	Wallace chosen regent of Scotland,—defeated	
	at Falkirk, July 22, 1298, and resigns the	
	regency.	
	— Statute of Edward I.—No taxes without con-	
	sent of parliament.	
1298	ALBERT I. (of Austria) emperor of Germany.	
	— The present Turkish empire begins under	
	Ottoman in Bithynia.	
1299) Ottoman or Othoman first sultan and founder	
	of the Turkish empire.	
1300		
1301	Quarrel between Philip the Fair and pope	Cimabue, <i>Painter, d.</i>
	Boniface VIII.	
1302	Comyn and Fraser defeat the English thrice	
	in one day.	
	— The mariners' compass said to be discovered	
	at Naples.	
1303	¶ Pope Benedict XI. (N. Bocasin.)	Abram Ben Casa,
1304	Wallace betrayed, delivered up, and put to	<i>Astron., d.</i>
	death by Edward I.	
1305	¶ Pope Clement V. (B. de Goth.)	
1306	ROBERT I. (Bruce) king of Scotland.	
1307	The establishment of the Swiss republics.	Joh. Dun Scotus, <i>d.</i>
	— Edward II. king of England.	
1308	HENRY VII. emperor of Germany.	Fordun, <i>Hist., d.</i>
	— Donati killed at Florence.	
	— The seat of the popes transferred to Avignon	
	for seventy years.	
1310	Rhodes taken by the Knights of St. John of	
	Jerusalem.	
1311	The <i>fifteenth</i> General Council held at Vienne	
	in Dauphiny.	
	— Pierce Gaveston, favourite of Edward II. put	
	to death.	
1312	The Knights Templars suppressed by Philip	
	the Fair.	
1314	The Scots under Robert Bruce defeat the	
	English under Edward II. at Bannockburn.	

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1314	LEWIS V. (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.	Mondini de Luzzi, <i>f. of</i>
—	Louis X. (<i>Hutín</i>) king of France.	<i>Mod. Anatomy.</i>
1315	John king of France.	Guy E. of Warwick, <i>d.</i>
1316	¶ Pope John XXII. (James d' Guse.)	Raym. Lalli, <i>Phil.</i> <i>d.</i>
—	Philip V. (<i>the Long</i>) king of France.	1318 Joinville, <i>Hist.</i> <i>d.</i>
1321	Charles IV. (<i>the Fair</i>) king of France.	P. di' Albano, <i>Phys.</i>
1327	EDWARD III. king of England.	<i>d. ab.</i>
1328	ANDRONICUS III. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	1321 Dante, <i>f. of Mod.</i>
—	Philip VI. (<i>of Valois</i>) king of France.	<i>Ital. Poetry.</i> <i>d.</i>
—	Orchanes or Urchan emperor of the Turks.	Castruc. Castracani, <i>d.</i>
1329	DAVID II. king of Scotland.—Randolph earl Murray Regent.	1330 Mortimer, earl of March, <i>d.</i>
1331	The Teutonic Knights settle in Prussia.	
1332	Edward Baliol, assisted by Edward III., is crowned at Scone, king of Scots, but is soon driven out of the kingdom.	
1333	Casimir III. (<i>the Great</i>) king of Poland.	Durandus, <i>d.</i>
—	The Scots defeated by Edward III. at Halidon Hill, July 19.	
1334	¶ Pope Benedict XII. (James Fournier.)	
1340	Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne.	Nich. de Lyra, <i>d.</i>
—	Oil painting said to be invented by John Van Eyk.	Sir J. Mandeville, <i>Trav.</i> <i>f.</i>
1341	JOHN V. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	
—	John Cantacuzene, his tutor, usurps the throne.	
1342	¶ Pope Clement VI. (Peter Roger.)	William Occam, <i>d.</i>
1346	Battle of Crecy, won by Edward III. and the Black Prince over the French.	1345 Abulfeda, <i>Hist.</i> <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Durham, in which David II. of Scotland is taken prisoner.	
1347	CHARLES IV. emperor of Germany.	
—	Nicola Kienzi assumes the government of Rome.	
1348	The first great pestilence in England, from 31st May to 29th September.	Richard of Bury, <i>d.</i>
—	The Order of the Garter instituted by Edward III.	
1350	Peter (<i>the Cruel</i>) king of Castile.	Jo. Math. & Ph. Villani, <i>Hist.</i> <i>f.</i>
1351	John II. king of France.	Laur. Minot, <i>Eng. Post.</i> <i>ab.</i>
1352	¶ Pope Innocent VI. (Stephen d' Albert.)	
—	The Turks first enter Europe.	
1356	The battle of Poitiers, in which John II. king of France is taken prisoner, and afterwards brought to London.	
1358	Great insurrection of the peasantry in France to recover their freedom.	
1359	Murad I. emperor of the Turks.	
1361	The second great pestilence in England from 2nd of August to 3d May, 1362.	Blind Harry, <i>Post.</i> <i>ab.</i>
1362	¶ Pope Urban V. (William of Geneva.)	
—	The law pleadings in England changed from French to English.	1363 Edward Baliol, <i>d.</i>
1363	John V. king of France.	1373 Jo. Barbour, <i>Post.</i>
1369	The third great pestilence in England, from 1st July to 22nd September.	1374 Petrarch, <i>Post.</i> <i>d.</i>
1377	¶ Pope Gregory XII. (Peter Roger.)	1375 Boccaccio, <i>f. of</i>
		<i>Mod. Ital. Prose.</i> <i>d.</i>

ROBERT II. (Stuart) king of Scotland.
 The popes return from Avignon to Rome.
Richard II. king of England.
 Wicliffe's doctrines propagated in England.
 The schism of the double popes at Rome and Avignon begins, and continues thirty-eight years.

Pope Urban VI. Rome, (B. Prignano.)
 Pope Clement VII. Avignon.
ERNESTUS emperor of Germany, deposed in 1400.

Charles VI. king of France.
 Tamerlane invades and subdues Chorassan.
 Theurrection of the English peasantry under Wat Tyler and Jack Straw.
 Peace between Venice and Genoa.
 Bills of Exchange first used in England.
 Cannon first used by the English in the defence of Calais.

Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, succeeds to the earldom of Flanders.
 Tamerlane subdues Georgia.
 Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas.

Pope Boniface IX. (Peter Tomicilli.)
ROBERT III. king of Scotland.
 Bajazet I. emperor of the Turks.
MANUEL II. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.

The Cape of Good Hope discovered by the Portuguese.

The Jews banished from France by Charles VI.
 Pope Benedict XIII. (Anti-pope.)
 Sigismund king of Hungary defeated by Bajazet I.

Tamerlane subdues part of Hindostan, and takes Delhi.

Richard IV. king of England.

ROBERT (Ot. Palatine) emperor of Germany.
 Bajazet is taken prisoner by Tamerlane in the battle of Angora.

Solyman I. emperor of the Turks.
 Battle of Homildon Hill, in which the Scots are defeated.

Battle of Shrewsbury, in which Hotspur is killed.

Pope Innocent VII. (Meliorati.)
 Death of Tamerlane.

AMES I. king of Scotland.

Pope Gregory XII. (A. Corrarior.)
 Council of Pisa, pope Gregory deposed.
 Muza emperor of the Turks.

Pope Alexander V. (Peter Philargius.)
 Pope John XXII. (B. Cossa.)

SIGISMUND emperor of Germany.
 The University of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.

Illustrious Persons.

1376 Ed. Black Pr., *d.*
 Ralph Higden, *Hist., d.*

Mat. of Westm., Hist., d.
 Bert. du Guesclin, *d.*

1385 Wickliffe, *first Eng. translator of the Bible, d.*

Hy. Knyghton, *Hist. d.*

Froissart, *Hist., d.*
 Gower, Chaucer, *Poets d.*

1408 Owen Glendour, *d.*
 Nich. Flamel, *Alch., d.*

A. C.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1413 Henry V. king of England.	
1414 The <i>seventeenth</i> General Council, held at Constance, in which two popes were deposed, and the popedom remained vacant near three years.	
— Mahomet I. emperor of the Turks.	
1415 Henry V. defeats the French at Agincourt.	
— John Huss condemned by the Council of Constance for heresy, and burned.	
1416 Jerome of Prague condemned by the same Council, and burned.	Em. Chrysoloras, <i>d.</i>
1417 ¶ Pope Martin V. (Otho Colonna.)	
— Paper first made from linen rags.	
1420 The island of Madeira discovered by the Portuguese.	
1421 JOHN VI. (Palæologus) joint emperor of the East.	1419 P. Ailly, <i>Theol., d.</i> Alain Chartier, <i>Poet, d.</i>
1422 Amurath besieges Constantinople.	
— Mahomet II. emperor of the Turks.	
— Henry VI. king of England.	T. Walsingham, <i>Hist., d.</i>
— Charles VII. king of France.	
— James I. king of Scots liberated from Captivity by the English.	
1425 JOHN VII. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	1424 Earl of Buchan, <i>Const. of France, d.</i>
— The Court of Session in Scotland instituted by James I.	
1428 Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, compels the English to raise the siege of that town.	Monstrelet, <i>Hist., f.</i>
1431 ¶ Pope Eugene IV. (G. Condolmere.)	Joan of Arc, <i>d.</i>
— The <i>eighteenth</i> General Council, held at Pavia, Sienna, and Basle.	
— Rise of the Medici family in Florence.	
1436 Paris recovered by the French from the English.	
1437 JAMES II. king of Scotland.	James I., <i>Poet, d.</i>
1438 ALBERT II. emperor of Germany.	
1439 Re-union of the Greek and Latin churches.	Scanderbeg, <i>f.</i>
— The Pragmatic Sanction established in France.	
1440 FREDERICK III. emperor of Germany.	
— Invention of the art of printing by John Gutenberg at Strasburg.	1443 L. Aretin, <i>d.</i>
1444 Ladislaus king of Hungary killed in battle with the Turks.	
1445 CONSTANTINE XI. (Palæologus) the last emperor of the East.	
1446 Great inundation of the sea in Holland.	Lydgate, <i>Poet, d. ab.</i> Humph. D. of Glo'ster, <i>d.</i>
1447 ¶ Pope Nicholas V. (Sarzana.)	Alberti, <i>Archit. of Ch.</i> <i>at Rimini, f.</i>
— Rise of the Sforza family at Milan.	Majano, <i>Archit. of Pal.</i> <i>of St. Marco.</i>
1450 Mahomet II. emperor of the Turks.	
1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks.—EXTINCTION OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.	
— End of the English government in France.	
1455 ¶ Pope Calixtus III. (Al. Borgia.)	
— Battle of St. Alban's, where Henry VI. is taken prisoner by the duke of York.	
1458 ¶ Pope Pius II. (Æneas Sylvius Piccolomini.)	

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1459	The art of engraving on copper invented.	Poggio of Florence, <i>d.</i>
1460	<i>JAMES III.</i> king of Scotland.	John Faust, <i>f.</i>
—	Battle of Wakefield—the Duke of York killed.	J. Guttenberg, <i>d.</i>
1461	<i>Edward IV.</i> king of England.	Rowley, <i>Poet, f.</i>
—	<i>Louis XI.</i> king of France.	
—	Battle of Tontou—Lancasterians defeated.	
1464	¶ Pope Paul II. (Peter Barbo.)	Cosmo de Medici, <i>d.</i>
1468	The Orkney and Shetland islands given to James III. of Scotland, as the dowry of Christiern of Denmark's daughter.	1465 Laur. Vulla, <i>d.</i> Æn. Sylvius, <i>d.</i>
1470	Henry VI. restored to the throne of England.	Regiomontanus, <i>d.</i>
1471	Battle of Barnet, where Warwick is killed.— Battle of Tewkesbury—Lancasterians totally defeated.	Thomas à Kempis, <i>d.</i>
—	Edward IV. restored.—Prince Edward of Lancaster basely murdered by Clarence and Gloucester.—Death of Henry VI.	
—	¶ Pope Sixtus IV. (Albescola de la Rovera.)	1472 Car. Bessarion, <i>d.</i>
1474	Cape de Verd islands discovered by the Portuguese.	
1475	Edward IV. invades France.—Peace of Pacquigni purchased by the French.	
1478	The conspiracy of the Pazzi against the Medici at Florence suppressed. The authority of Lorenzo de Medici established.	Theod. Gaza, <i>d.</i>
1479	Ferdinand and Isabella unite the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile.	
—	Russia freed from subjection to the Tartars by John I. (Vasilaviche) the Great.	
1481	¶ Bajazet II. emperor of the Turks.	Philelphus, <i>d.</i>
1483	<i>Charles VIII.</i> king of France.	B. Platina, <i>d.</i>
—	<i>Edward V.</i> king of England, April 9.—Richard duke of Gloucester Protector.	
—	Edward V. and his brother murdered, June 25.	
—	Richard III. king of England.	
1484	¶ Pope Innocent VIII. (J. B. Cibo.)	
1485	Battle of Bosworth, in which Richard III. is killed, August 22.	Picus Mirandola, <i>f.</i> Pomp. Lætus, <i>Hist., f.</i> Alexr. ab Alexandro, <i>Hist., f.</i> Chancondiles, <i>Hist., f.</i>
—	<i>Henry VII.</i> king of England; first of the house of Tudor.—Union of the houses of York and Lancaster.	1490 Boiardo, <i>Poet, d.</i> Annio de Vertibo, <i>d.</i>
1488	<i>JAMES IV.</i> king of Scotland.	
1491	Granada taken by Ferdinand and Isabella.—End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.	Caxton, <i>Printer, d.</i> Lorenzo de Medici, <i>d.</i> Politian, <i>d.</i>
1492	¶ Pope Alexander VI. (Roderick Borgia.)	
—	Hispaniola and Cuba discovered by Columbus.	
1493	MAXIMILIAN I. emperor of Germany.	
1494	Expedition of Charles VIII. into Naples.	
—	Algebra first known in Europe.	
—	America discovered by Columbus.	
1497	The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope, and sail to the East Indies.	
1498	<i>Louis XII.</i> king of France.	Savonarola, <i>Theol., d.</i>
—	Savonarola burned by Pope Alexander VI. for preaching against the vices of the clergy.	
1499	<i>Louis XII.</i> takes possession of the Milanese.	Marcil. Ficinus, <i>d.</i>
—	Sebastian Cabot lands in North America.	Vasques de Gama, <i>f.</i>

A. C.	Illustrious Persons
1500	
— Brazil discovered by the Portuguese.	
— Maximilian divides Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.	
1503 ¶ Pope Pius III. (Francis Piccolomini.)	Jov. Pontanus, <i>d.</i>
— ¶ Pope Julius II. (Julian de la Rovera.)	
— Battle of Cerizoles—the French lose Naples.	
1504 Philip I. king of Spain.—1506. Jane his queen.	P. Beroaldus, <i>Hist., d.</i>
1506 The Sugar Cane first planted in Hispaniola from the Canaries.	Columbus, <i>d.</i>
— The building of St. Peter's at Rome commenced.	
1507 Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.	Cæsar Borgia, <i>d.</i>
1508 League of Cambray against the Venetians.	Americanus Vespuetius, <i>d.</i>
1509 Henry VIII. king of England.	P. de Comines, <i>Hist., d.</i>
— Battle of Agnadello, May 14.	
1511 Cuba conquered by the Spaniards.	
— Selim I. emperor of the Turks.	
1512 The French defeat the Venetians at Ravenna.	Gaston de Foix, <i>d.</i>
1513 Battle of Flodden, fatal to the Scots, Sept. 11.	Rob. Fabian, <i>Hist., d.</i>
— The English defeat the French in the battle of the Spurs.	C. Rhodigin, <i>Gram., f.</i>
— JAMES V. king of Scotland.	
— ¶ Pope Leo X. (John de Medicis.)	
1515 Francis I. king of France.	
— Battle of Marignan, in which the French defeat the Swiss.	
1516 Charles I. (emperor Charles V.) king of Spain.	Bap. Mantuanus, <i>Poet, d.</i>
— Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Algiers.	
1517 The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther.	Step. Hawes, <i>Poet, f.</i>
— The Turks put an end to the reign of the Mamelukes in Egypt.	Card. Ximenes, <i>d.</i>
— Negroes first carried to America.	
1518 Leo X. condemns Luther's doctrines.	Card. Adrian, <i>d.</i>
1519 CHARLES V. emperor of Germany.	John Colet, <i>d.</i>
— Magellan explores the South Seas.	Leon. da Vinci, <i>f. of Mod. Paint., d.</i>
1520 Solyman II. (the Magnificent) emperor of the Turks.	Raphael, <i>Painter, d.</i>
— Sweden and Denmark united.	H. Boece, <i>Hist., d.</i>
— Massacre of Stockholm by Christiern II. and Archbishop Trollo.	H. Stephens, <i>sen., Pr., d.</i>
1521 ¶ Pope Adrian VI. (Adrian Florent.)	
— Gustavus Vasa king of Sweden.	
— Cortez completes the conquest of Mexico.	
1522 The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.	Gawin Douglas, <i>Poet, d.</i>
— Rhodes taken by the Turks.	P. Melancthon, <i>f.</i>
— Solyman the Magnificent takes Belgrade.	
1523 ¶ Pope Clement VII. (Julius de Medicis.)	
— Sweden and Denmark embrace Protestantism.	Linacre, <i>Med., d.</i>
1524 Battle of Pavia, in which Francis I. is taken prisoner by Charles V.	Pistor, <i>Theol., f.</i>
1525 Treaty of Madrid between Charles V. and Francis I. when the latter is set at liberty.	
1527 Rome taken and plundered by Charles V.	Const. de Bourb., <i>d.</i>
— Pizarro and Dalmagro invade the empire of Peru.	J. Froben., <i>Pr., d.</i>
1528 Revolution of Genoa by Andrea Doria.	A. Durer, <i>Paint. d.</i>

<i>A. C.</i>	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1528 Gustavus Ericson crowned king of Sweden.	
1529 Diet of Spires against the Huguenots, then first termed Protestants.	Machiavelli, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— Peace of Cambray, August 5.	
1530 The league of Smalcald between the Protestants.	B. Donatus, <i>Cr.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1531 Michael Servetus burned for heresy at Geneva.	A. Alciat, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1532 The treaty of Nuremberg, August 2.	Sannazarius, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— The Court of Session in Scotland new-modelled by James V	W. Dunbar, <i>Poet.</i>
1534 The Reformation takes place in England.	1531 Zuinglius, <i>d.</i>
— ¶ Pope Paul III. (Alex. Farnese.)	Occolampadius, <i>d.</i>
— Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Tunis.	Card. Wolsey, <i>d.</i>
— Jack of Leyden heads the Anabaptists at Munster.	1533 L. Ariosto, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1535 The society of the Jesuits instituted by Ignatius Loyola.—Sanctioned by the Pope 1540.	C. Agrippa, <i>d.</i>
— Expedition of Charles V. against Tunis.	Sir T. More, <i>beh.</i>
1538 Treaty of Nice between Charles V. and Francis I	M. Accursius, <i>Phil.</i> , <i>f.</i>
— The Bible in English appointed to be read in the churches of England.	1536 Erasmus, <i>d.</i>
1540 Dissolution of the monasteries in England by Henry VIII.	
1542 Defeat of the Scots at Solway Moss.	Budeus Ictus, <i>d.</i>
— MARY queen of Scotland.	Æoban. Hessus, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1544 The French defeat the troops of Charles V. in the battle of Cerizoles. The treaty of Crépi.	Guicciardini, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1545 The last General Council held at Trent against the alleged errors of Luther, Zuingli, and Calvin, begins, which continued eighteen years.	Jo. Major, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— The Scots defeat the English at Ancram Muir.	Jo. Bale, <i>Biog.</i> , <i>f.</i>
1546 Cardinal Beaton, Abp. of St. Andrew's, assassinated.	1541 Paracelsus, <i>Phys.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1547 Fiesco's conspiracy at Genoa.	T. Wyatt, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— The battle of Mulberg, in which the Protestants are defeated, and the Elector of Saxony taken prisoner.	1542A. Pighius, <i>Math.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— Edward VI. king of England.	1543 Copernicus, <i>Phil.</i> , <i>dis. the true sys. of the univ.</i>
— Henry II. king of France.	1544 L. Baif, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1547 Battle of Pinkey in Scotland, where the Scots are defeated by the English, December 10.	Cl. Marot, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1548 The Interim granted by Charles V. to the Protestants.	Ol. Magnus, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1550 ¶ Pope Julius III. (del Monte.)	1545 Bellai, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1552 The treaty of Passau between Charles V. and the Elector of Saxony, for the establishment of Lutheranism.	1546 Jovius, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1553 Mary queen of England.	Ed. Hall, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— Lady Jane Grey beheaded.	Mart. Luther, <i>d.</i>
1555 ¶ Pope Marcellus II. (Marcel Cervin.)	Howard, E. of Surrey, <i>d.</i>
— ¶ Pope Paul IV. (Caraffa.)	1547 Lud. Vives, <i>d.</i>
— Many bishops burned in England by Mary.	Card. Bembo, <i>d.</i>
1556 The emperor Charles V. abdicates.	Pentinger, <i>Geog.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— FERDINAND I. emperor of Germany	Vatablus, <i>Gram.</i> , <i>d.</i>
— Philip II. king of Spain.	Card. Sadoletus, <i>d.</i>
1557 Philip II. defeats the French at St. Quintin.	1550 Trissino, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
	Sleidan, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
	1551 J. Leland, <i>Ant.</i> , <i>d.</i>
	Mart. Bucer, <i>d.</i>
	1553 Rabbelaia, <i>d.</i>
	J. Dubravius, <i>Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
	Fracastorius, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
	1555 Polyd. Virgil, <i>d.</i>
	Agriola, <i>Med.</i> , <i>d.</i>

- A.C.*
 1558 Calais taken by the French from the English.
 ——— ~~Elizabeth~~ queen of England.
 ——— The French defeated at Gravelines.
 ——— Mary queen of Scots married to the Dauphin.
 1559 ¶ Pope Pius IV. (J. Angelo de Medicis.)
 ——— Francis II. king of France.
 ——— Treaty of Catteau Cambresis.
 1560 Charles IX. king of France.
 ——— Conspiracy of Amboise, formed by the party of Condé against that of Guise.—Beginning of the civil wars in France.
 ——— The Reformation completed in Scotland by Knox.
 ——— The Papal authority abolished by Parliament in Scotland.
 1561 Mary queen of Scots arrives in Scotland from France.
 1562 Battle of Dreux.—Victory of the Guises over Condé.
 1563 Council of Trent dissolved.
 1564 MAXIMILIAN II. emperor of Germany.
 ——— Siege of Malta by the Turks, who are defeated.
 1566 ¶ Pope Pius V. (Michael Ghisleri.)
 ——— Revolt of the Netherlands from Philip II.
 ——— Murder of David Rizzio in Scotland.
 ——— Selim II. emperor of the Turks.
 1567 Duke of Alva sent by Philip to the Netherlands.
 ——— King Henry Darnley murdered, February 9.
 ——— JAMES VI. king of Scotland.
 1568 Mary queen of Scots flies into England.
 ——— Philip II. exterminates the Moors from Spain.
 ——— Puts to death his son Don Carlos.
 1569 The earl of Murray, regent of Scotland, assassinated by Hamilton.
 ——— The French Protestants defeated in the battles of Jarnac and Moncontour.
 ——— The Royal Exchange built in London by Sir Thomas Gresham, "the royal merchant."
 1571 Naval victory at Lepanto, where the Turks are defeated by Don John of Austria.
 1572 ¶ Pope Gregory XIII. (H. Buoncompagno.)
 ——— The massacre of St. Bartholemew, August 24.
 1573 Haerlem taken by the Spaniards.
 1574 Henry III. king of France.
 ——— Socinus propagates his opinions.
 ——— Don Sebastian king of Portugal invades Africa.
 ——— Memorable siege of Leyden, raised by the Prince of Orange, and the admiral Boissot.
 1575 Amurath III. emperor of the Turks.
 1576 RODOLPHUS II. emperor of Germany.
 ——— The Catholic league in France formed against the Protestants.
 1578 The Spaniards under Don John of Austria defeated in the battle of Rimenant.
 1579 Commencement of the Republic of Holland by the union of Utrecht.—Maastricht taken by the Spaniards.

Illustrious Persons.

- 1556 Ign. Loyola, d.
 Pet. Aretin, d.
 Abp. Cranmer, d.
 1557 Sir Jo. Cheke, d.
 1558 Valerian, Poet, d.
 Scaliger, Poet, d.
 Aldronandus, d.
 1559 R. Stephens, Pr. d.
 1560 Hospital, Chan. f.
 Andrew Doria, d.
 Peter Martyr, d.
 Roger Ascham, d.
 Calvin, Theol., d.
 Mich. Angelo Buonaroth, Paint., d.
 1565 C. Gesner, Phil., d.
 Adrian Turnebus, d.
 1566 Hier Vida, Poet, d.
 Han Caro, Poet, d.
 Castlevetro, Crit., d.
 1567 Montmorency, Const. of France, d.
 Ber. Tasso, Poet, d.
 John Knox, Theol., d.
 Adm. Coligni, d.
 H. Cardan, d.
 Peter Ramus, d.
 1574 Paul Manutius, d.
 Camerarius, d.
 Titian, Paint., d.
 Hans Sach, fo. of Ger. Dram., d.
 Matheolus, Med., f.
 Camoens, Poet, d.
 Sir T. Gresham, d.

A.C.

1579 Battle of Alcagar, the Portuguese under Don Sebastian defeated by Muley Moluck.

1580 Philip II. takes possession of Portugal.

— The world circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.

1582 The Raid of Ruthven in Scotland.—James VI. seized by the earl of Gowrie.

— The New Style introduced into Italy by pope Gregory XIII. the 5th of October being counted the 15th.

1584 William I. prince of Orange murdered at Delft.

— Virginia discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh.

— Embassy from four kings of Japan to Philip II.

1585 ¶ Pope Sixtus V. (Felix Peritti.)

— Shah Abbas the Great king of Persia.

1587 Mary queen of Scots beheaded at Fotheringay.

1588 Destruction of the Spanish Armada by the English.

1589 Henry III. of France murdered by Jacques Clement.

— Henry IV. (the Great) king of France.

1590 The battle of Ivry, which ruins the Catholic league in France.

— ¶ Pope Urban VII. (Castayna.)

— ¶ Pope Gregory XIV. (Sfondrate.)

1591 The University of Dublin erected.

— ¶ Pope Innocent IX. (Facchinetti.)

1592 Presbyterianism established in Scotland.

— ¶ Pope Clement VIII. (Aldobrandini.)

1594 The Bank of England incorporated.

— Mahomet III. emperor of the Turks.

1596 Cadiz taken by the English under Essex.

1598 Edict of Nantes tolerating Protestantism in France.

— Peace of Vervins between France and Spain.

— Philip III. king of Spain.

— Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland.

1600

— Gowrie conspiracy in Scotland.

— The earl of Essex beheaded.

— The English East India Company established.

1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.

1603 James I. (VI. of Scotland) king of England.

— Union of the crowns of England and Scotland.

— Mahomet I. emperor of the Turks.

1605 The Gunpowder Plot discovered.

— Leo XI. (Octavian de Medicis.)

— ¶ Pope Paul V. (C. Borghese.)

1606 James I. takes the title of King of Great Britain.

— Abolition of the Brehon Laws in Ireland, and the English law substituted, with a regular House of Commons.

1608 Galileo discovers the satellites of Jupiter.

— Arminius propagates his opinions.

1609 Bank of Amsterdam established.

*Illustrious Persons.*Palladio, *Arch.*, f.Tusser, *Poet*, d.

1581 Ja. Chrichton, 'the admirable,' d.

Osorius, d.

G. Buchanan, *Hist.*, d.

1585 Bodinus, d.

Car. Sigonius, d.

Ronsard, *Poet*, d.Tallis, *fath. of Eng. Music*, d.

1586 Sir Ph. Sydney, d.

P. Veronese, *Paint.*, d.M. Frobisher, *Nav.*, f.Cujas, *Sotus*, dDu Bartas, *Poet*, d.

Pancirollus, d.

B. Brissonius, *Ictus*, d.

M. Montague, d.

1593 Marlowe, *Dram.*, d.Tintoretto, *Paint.*, d.Palestrina, *Mus.*, d.1595 Acidalius, *Crit.*, d.Torg. Tasso, *Poet*, d.

1596 Manutius, jun., d.

Sir Francis Drake, d.

J. Bodin, *Pol. sc.*, d.

1597 Dousa, jun., d.

1598 H. Stephens, jun., d.

Spencer, *Poet*, d.R. Hooker, *Theol.*, d.

1600 Riccoboni, d.

Galileo, *Phil.*, f.Kepler, *Phil.*, f.

1601 Tycho Brache, d.

Jo. Stowe, *Antq.*, d.W. Gilbert, *Phys.*, d.,*dis. electricity.*W. Camden, *Antq.*, d.1605 Beza, *Theol.*, d.Just. Lipsius, *Pol. sc.*, d.

1607 Card. Buronius, d.

1609 Jos. Scaliger, d.

An. Caracci, *Paint.*, d.1612 Guarini, *It. poet.*, d.

1614 Is. Casaubon, d.

<i>A.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1610	Henry IV. of France murdered by Ravallac.	1615 Et. Pasquier, <i>d.</i>
—	<i>Louis XIII. king of France.</i>	1615 F. Beaumont,
—	The Moors expelled from Spain by Philip III.	<i>Dram., d.</i>
—	Hudson's Bay discovered.	1616 Shakspeare, <i>d.</i>
1611	Baronets first created in England by James I.	R. Hakluyt, <i>Voy., d.</i>
1612	MATHIAS emperor of Germany.	Cervantes, <i>d.</i>
1613	Michael Romanoff, czar of Russia.	1617 Napier of Merchiston, <i>inv. of Logarithms, d.</i>
1614	Logarithms invented by Napier of Merchiston.	Helvicus, <i>d.</i>
1616	Settlement of Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh.	De Thou, <i>Hist., d.</i>
1617	Mustapha emperor of the Turks.	Aquillon, <i>Math., d.</i>
1618	The Synod of Dort in Holland.	1618 Card. Perron, <i>d.</i>
1619	Discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. Harvey.	Sir Walter Raleigh, <i>d.</i>
—	FERDINAND II. emperor of Germany.	Vossius, <i>Crit., f.</i>
—	Vanini burned at Thoulouse for atheism.	Guido Rheni, <i>Paint., f.</i>
1620	The Battle of Prague, by which the Elector Palatine loses his electorate.	Rubens, <i>Paint., f.</i>
—	The English make a settlement at Madras.	Kepler, <i>Ast., f.</i>
—	Emigration of Puritans to New England.	Davila, <i>Hist., f.</i>
—	Navarre united to France.	Fam Strada, <i>Hist., f.</i>
—	Othman II. emperor of the Turks.	Card. Bellermain, <i>d.</i>
1621	Philip IV. king of Spain.	John Barclay, <i>d.</i>
—	Batavia built and settled by the Dutch.	Sir H. Saville, <i>d.</i>
—	¶ Pope Gregory XV. (Ludovico.)	W. Camden, <i>Hist., d.</i>
1622	Amurath IV. emperor of the Turks.	Paul Sarpi, <i>d.</i>
1623	¶ Pope Urban VIII. (Barberini.)	W. Bird, <i>Music, d., "non nobis Domine."</i>
—	Institution of the knights of Nova Scotia by James I.	1624 Marianna, <i>Polit.sc.</i>
1625	Charles I. king of Great Britain.	J. Fletcher, <i>Dram., d.</i>
—	The island of Barbadoes planted—the first English settlement in the West Indies.	Lord Bacon, <i>d.</i>
—	Knights Baronets first created in Scotland.	Will. Snell, <i>Opt., d.</i>
1626	Protestant League against the emperor.	1627 J. Gruterus, <i>d.</i>
1632	Gustavus Adolphus killed in the battle of Lutzen.	1628 Malherbe, <i>Poet, d.</i>
—	Christina queen of Sweden.	1632 T. Allen, <i>Math., d.</i>
1635	The French Academy instituted.	Chapman, <i>Poet, d.</i>
1637	FERDINAND III. emperor of Germany.	1635 Lope de Vega, <i>Poet, d.</i>
—	Bagdat taken by the Turks.	A. Tassoni, <i>Poet, d.</i>
1638	The Solemn League and Covenant established in Scotland.	1637 Ben Jonson, <i>Dram., d.</i>
1640	John IV. (duke of Braganza) recovers the kingdom of Portugal.	1639 Opitz, <i>fa. of m. Ger. Poet, d.</i>
—	¶ Ibrahim emperor of the Turks.	Campanella, <i>Phil., d.</i>
—	Long Parliament met Nov. 3.	1640 Achelini, <i>Poet, d.</i>
—	Fort St. George, or Madras, founded.	P. Massinger, <i>Poet, d.</i>
1641	Irish Rebellion, and massacre of Protestants, Oct. 23.	Rubens, <i>Paint., d.</i>
—	The earl of Strafford beheaded.	D. of Sully, <i>d.</i>
—	The Bishops expelled parliament.	A. Vandyke, <i>Paint., d.</i>
—	The sugar cane introduced into Barbadoes from Brazil.	H. Spelman, <i>d.</i>
1642	Beginning of the Civil War in England.—The battle of Edgehill, October 23.	Domenichino, <i>Paint., d.</i>
1643	<i>Louis XIV. king of France.</i>	1641 Galileo, <i>Phil., d.</i>
—	Anne of Austria regent of France.	Card. Richelieu, <i>d.</i>
—	Archbishop Laud impeached by the Commons, tried and beheaded.	

evolution in China by the Tartars.
 [Pope Innocent X. (Pamphila.)
 Charles I. defeated in the battle of Naseby.
 Sir Robert Spottiswoode, President of the
 Session, beheaded 26th January.
 The peace of Westphalia.—The civil war of
 the Fronde at Paris.
 Charles I. of England beheaded.
 The Commonwealth of England begins.
 Mahomet IV. emperor of the Turks.
 The marquis of Montrose put to death.
 Battle of Dunbar.—Covenanters defeated by
 Cromwell.
 The battle of Worcester won by Cromwell.
 The first war between the English and Dutch.
 Dark or Mirk Monday, 30th March.
 The Dutch fleet defeated by Monk, 30 ships
 taken, and Van Tromp killed, July 30th.
 End of the Commonwealth of England.—
 Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector.
 The English, under Admiral Penn, take pos-
 session of Jamaica.
 Christina queen of Sweden resigns the crown
 to Charles X.
 [Pope Alexander VII. (Fabio Chigi.)
 Dunkirk delivered to the English.
 JOSEPH I. emperor of Germany.
 Richard Cromwell Lord Protector of England.
 The peace of the Pyrenees between France and
 Spain.
 Charles II. king of Great Britain.—Restora-
 tion of monarchy
 The Peace of Oliva between Sweden, Den-
 mark, and Poland.
 The marquis of Argyle beheaded for treason,
 27th May.
 The Royal Society instituted in England.
 Dunkirk sold back to the French.
 Carolina planted.
 The French Academy of Inscriptions instituted.
 The second Dutch war begins.
 Charles II. king of Spain.
 Great plague in London.
 The London Gazette first published.
 Great fire of London.
 The Academy of Sciences instituted in France.
 Abatei Levi, in Turkey, pretends to be the
 Messiah.
 The Scots Covenanters defeated on Pentland
 hills.
 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the
 English Pennsylvania, New York, and
 New Jersey.
 [Pope Clement IX. (Julius Rospigliosi.)
 The Spanish Netherlands invaded by Louis
 XIV.
 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
 The island of Candia taken by the Turks.

Illustrious Persons.
 Jo. Hampden, *d.*
 Bentivoglio, *d.*
 R. Baker, *Hist., d.*
 Chillingworth, *d.*
 Van Helmont, *d.*
 1645 H. Grotius, *Jurist,*
d.
 1647 Quevedo, *Poet, d.*
 Torricelli, *Inv. of*
Barometer, d.
 1648 Voiture, *d.*
 1649 W. Drummond,
Poet, d.
 F. Strada, *d.*
 1650 J. J. Vossius, *d.*
 Descartes, *Phil., d.*
 1651 Monteverde,
Music., d.
 1652 Inigo Jones, *Arch.,*
d.
 Petavius, *Hist., d.*
 1653 Salmasius, *def. pro*
Calolo I., d.
 G. Nande, *d.*
 1654 Balzac, *d.*
 John Selden, *Ant., d.*
 1655 Gassendi, *Phil., d.*
 Abp. Usher, *d.*
 D. Hensius, *Poet, d.*
 1656 N. Poussin, *Paint.,*
d.
 1657 W. Harvey, *Phys.,*
dis. circul. of the
blood, d.
 Admiral Blake, *d.*
 1658 Casp. Barthius, *d.*
 1660 Scarron, *Poet, d.*
 Spinoza, *Phil., f.; d.*
 1678.
 H. Hammond, *d.*
 1661 Card. Mazarin, *d.*
 L. de Haro, *d.*
 Fermat, *f.*
 1662 B. Pascal, *d.*
 1663 Grimaldi, *Physic.,*
d.
 Cowley, *Poet, d.*
 Sam. Bochart, *d.*
 Denham, *Poet, d.*

- A.C.
 1670 ¶ Pope Clement X. (Altieri.)
 1672 Louis XIV. conquers great part of Holland.
 — The De Witts put to death in Holland.
 1674 John Sobieski king of Poland.
 1676 ¶ Pope Innocent XI. (B. Odescalchi.)
 — Carolina planted by the English.
 1678 The peace of Nimeguin, July 31.
 — The Habeas Corpus Act passed in England.
 1679 The long Parliament of Charles II. dissolved.
 — The Scottish Covenanters defeated at Bothwell Bridge by the Duke of Monmouth, June 22.
 — Peace of Nimeguin with France and the Empire.
 1682 Peter the Great czar of Muscovy.
 1683 Execution of Lord Russel, 21st July.
 — Execution of Algernon Sydney, 7th December.
 — The siege of Vienna by the Turks, raised by John Sobieski.
 1685 James II. king of Great Britain.
 — Revocation of the edict of Nantes by Louis XIV.
 — Duke of Monmouth beheaded.
 1686 The Newtonian philosophy first published.
 — The league of Augsburg against France.
 1687 ¶ Solyman III. emperor of the Turks.
 1688 Revolution in Britain.—King James abdicates the throne, December 23.
 1689 William III. and Mary II. king and queen of Great Britain.
 — Episcopacy abolished in Scotland by king William.
 — Battle of Killiecrankie.—The king's troops defeated.—The viscount of Dundee slain, July 16, O. S.
 — ¶ Pope Alexander VIII. (P. Ottoboni.)
 1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1.
 1691 ¶ Pope Innocent XII. (A. Pignatelli.)
 — ¶ Achmet II. emperor of the Turks.
 1692 Battle of La Hogue, May 19.
 — Massacre of Glencoe in Scotland, Jan. 31, O. S.
 — Battle of Steenkirk.—King William defeated by Luxemburg, July 24.
 — Hanover made the ninth Electorate of the empire.
 1695 Namur taken by king William, June 25.
 — ¶ Mustapha II. emperor of the Turks.
 1697 Peace of Ryswick concluded, September 11.
 — Peter the Great gains a signal victory over the Turks, and takes Azoph.
 — Charles XII. king of Sweden.
 1699 Peace of Carlovitz concluded, January 26.
 — The Scots attempt a colony at Darien.
1700
 — Charles XII. takes Copenhagen.
 — Philip V. king of Spain.
 — ¶ Pope Clement XI. (Albano.)
 1701 Death of James II. at St. Germain's.
- Illustrious Persons.*
 1671 Mot. le Vayer, d.
 Gronovius, *Ant.*, d.
 Chauc. Segnier, d.
 1673 Moliere, *Poet*, d.
 1674 Milton, *Poet*, d.
 Labbadie, d.
 Hyde L. Clarendon, d.
 Carissimi, *Mus.*, d.
 1675 Turenne, d.
 1676 De Ruyter, d.
 Sir M. Hale, d.
 1677 Harrington, *Ocean*, d.
 Spinoza, *Phil.*, d.
 1679 Hobbes, *Phil.*, d.
 D. de Rochefoucault, d.
 Card. de Retz, d.
 Mezeray, *Hist.*, d.
 1680 T. Bartolin, d.
 Bernini, *Sculp.*, d.
 S. Butler, *Poet*, d.
 T. Otway, *Poet*, d.
 Mad. Bourignon, d.
 Ath. Kircher, d.
 1681 Montecuculi, d.
 Marsham, *Chron.*, d.
 1682 T. Brown, *Phys.*, d.
 1st E. Shaftesbury, d.
 1683 J. B. Colbert, d.
 1684 P. Corneille, *Po.*, d.
 1686 Maimbourg, *Hist.*, d.
 Otho Gueric, *Math.*,
inv. of air-pumps, d.
 1687 Waller, *Poet*, d.
 Da Barga, *Dram.*, d.
 Lally, *Mus.*, d.
 1688 Du Cange, d.
 Cudworth, *In. Sys.*, d.
 D. of Ormond, d.
 C. le Brun, *Paint.*, d.
 C. Menage, d.
 1689 Sydenham, *Phys.*, d.
 1691 R. Boyle, *Phil.*, d.
 Sir G. Mackenzie, d.
 N. Hiensius, d.
 1694 Puffendorf, *Hist.*, d.
 Abp. Tillotson, d.
 Huygens, *Phil.*, d.
 1695 La Fontaine, d.
 1695 Dr. Busby, d.
 Purcel, *En. Mus.*, d.
 1696 La Bruyere, d.
 Racine, d.
 Bp. Stillingfleet, d.
 Sir W. Temple, d.
 1701 Dryden, *Poet*, d.
 E. of Sunderland, d.

A.C.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1702 Anne queen of Great Britain.—War against France and Spain.	Bouhours, <i>d.</i>
— The English and Dutch destroy the French fleet at Vigo.	1703 J. G. Graevius, <i>d.</i>
— The French send colonies to the Mississippi.	St. Evremont, <i>Poet, d.</i>
1703 Gibraltar taken by admiral Rooke, July 24.	Wallis, <i>Phys., d.</i>
— Achmet III. emperor of the Turks.	1704 Locke, <i>Phil., d.</i>
1704 Battle of Blenheim.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Prince Eugene, August 2.	1705 Ray, <i>Nat., d.</i>
— Peter the Great founds St. Petersburg.	1706 Bp. Bossuet, <i>d.</i>
1705 The English take Barcelona.	John Evelyn, <i>d.</i>
— JOSEPH I. emperor of Germany.	P. Bayle, <i>d.</i>
1706 Battle of Ramillies.—The French defeated by the duke of Marlborough, May 12.	Ch. E. of Dorset, <i>d.</i>
— The treaty of Union between England and Scotland, signed July 22.	1707 Vauban, <i>Mil. Arch. d.</i>
1707 The battle of Almanza.—The French and Spaniards, under the duke of Berwick, defeat the Allies, April 14.	Farquhar, <i>Poet, d.</i>
— The first united parliament of Great Britain meets, Oct. 23.	1708 Mansart, <i>Archit. under Louis XIV., d.</i>
1708 Battle of Oudenarde.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, June 30.	1711 N. Boileau, <i>Poet, d.</i>
— Minorca taken by general Stanhope, Sept. 18.	H. Dodwell, <i>d.</i>
1709 Battle of Pultowa.—Charles XII. defeated by czar Peter, June 30.	1712 Cassini, <i>Phil., d.</i>
— Battle of Malplaquet.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, Sept. 11.	A. Cooper, 2d E. of Shaftesbury, <i>d.</i>
1711 CHARLES VI. emperor of Germany.	1713 Carlo Maratti, <i>d.</i>
1713 The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30.	Corelli, <i>Music., d.</i>
1714 George I. elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.	1715 Abp. Fenelon, <i>d.</i>
1715 Louis XV. king of France.	Girardon, <i>Sculp., d.</i>
— Rebellion in Scotland.—Battle of Sheriff-muir, Nov. 13.	Bp. Burnet, <i>d.</i>
1716 Prince Eugene defeats the Turks at Peterwaradin.	Malbranche, <i>Phil., d.</i>
1718 Charles XII. killed at the siege of Frederickshall.	1716 Leibnitz, <i>Phil., d.</i>
1720 The Mississippi scheme in France projected by John Law, breaks up 23d May.	Gronovius, <i>d.</i>
— In the same year the South-Sea scheme breaks up in England, September.	Lord Somers, <i>d.</i>
1721 ¶ Pope Innocent XIII. (M. A. Conti.)	1718 Mad. Dacier, <i>d.</i>
1724 ¶ Pope Benedict XIII. (P. F. Orsini.)	J. V. Gravina, <i>d.</i>
1725 Death of Peter the Great.—Catherine empress.	1719 Mad. Maintenon, <i>d.</i>
1726 Great earthquake at Palermo, August 21.	Addison, <i>Essay., d.</i>
1727 George II. king of Great Britain.	Flamstead, <i>Astr., d.</i>
— Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark.	1720 Hensius, <i>Gr. Pensy., d.</i>
— The Spaniards besiege Gibraltar, May 20.	1721 Prior, <i>Poet, d.</i>
1728 Treaty between Great Britain and Holland, May 27.	Huet, <i>d.</i>
— The Congress of Soissons, June 14.	1722 Dacier, <i>d.</i>
1729 Treaty of Seville between Great Britain, France, and Spain, November 9.	John D. of Marlbro', <i>d.</i>
1730 ¶ Pope Clement XII. (L. Corsini.)	C. Fleury, <i>Hist., d.</i>
	1723 Sir C. Wren, <i>Arch., d.</i>
	H. Prideaux, <i>d.</i>
	Leuwenhoek, <i>inv. of Micros., d.</i>
	Basnage, <i>Hist., d.</i>
	1724 Wollaston, <i>Phil., d.</i>
	1725 Kneller, <i>Paint., d.</i>
	Vanbrugh, <i>Archit., d.</i>
	1727 Sir Is. Newton, <i>d., fo. of Mod. Astr. and Physics.</i>
	1728 J. L' Enfant, <i>d.</i>
	1729 Dr S. Clarke, <i>d.</i>
	R. Steel, <i>Essay., d.</i>
	Congreve, <i>Poet, d.</i>
	John Lane, <i>Financ. d.</i>

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons</i>
1730	Christian VI. king of Denmark.	Eachard, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
—	The Persians under Kouli-Khan defeat the Turks.	
—	Mahomet V. emperor of the Turks.	1731 Bp. Atterbury, d.
1731	Treaty between Great Britain, the emperor, and king of Spain, July 22.	Daniel Defoe, d.
1733	The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay, January.	1732 Gay, <i>Poet.</i> , d.
—	Frederick III. king of Poland.	Corelli, <i>Mus.</i> , d.
1734	Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Russia, December 2.	Mandeville, d.
1735	The French defeat the Imperialists in Italy.	Arbuthnot, <i>Phys.</i> , d.
1736	Peace between Spain and Austria.	C. Campbell, <i>Arch.</i>
—	Kouli-Khan (Nadir-Shah) king of Persia, Sept 29.	Duke of Berwick, d.
1737	War between the Emperor and the Turks, July 2.	1735 Derham, <i>Phil.</i> , d.
1738	The Russians invade the Crimea.	Bp. Tanner, <i>Ant.</i> , d.
1739	Nadir-Shah conquers the greatest part of the Mogul empire.	Vertot, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
—	Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark.	1736 J. le Clerc, <i>Phil.</i> , d.
—	Peace between the Emperor and the Turks, August 21.	Ld. Lansdowne, <i>Poet.</i> , d.
—	Peace between Russia and the Turks, November.	Prince Eugene, d.
—	Portobello taken by Admiral Vernon, November 21.	1737 Rowe, <i>Poet.</i> , d.
1740	Frederick III. (the Great) king of Prussia.	1738 Boerhaave, <i>Phys.</i> , d.
—	Pope Benedict XIV. (P. Lambertini.)	Sanderson, <i>Math.</i> , d.
—	War of the Austrian succession.	
1741	War between Russia and Sweden.	Eph. Chambers, d.
—	Carthage taken by Admiral Vernon, June 19.	Tickell, <i>Poet.</i> , d.
—	The Prussians masters of Silesia, October 20.	Fahrenheit, <i>Inv. of Therm.</i> , d.
1742	Peace between Austria and Prussia, June 11.	B. Montfaucon, <i>Ant.</i> , d.
—	Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, November 18.	C. Rollin, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
—	CHARLES VII. (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.	R. Sanderson, <i>Ant.</i> , d.
1743	Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Russia, February.	Halley, <i>Math.</i> , d.
—	War in Germany between the British, Hungarians, French, and Austrians.	R. Bentley, d.
—	The French defeated by the Allies at Dettingen, June 6.	Abp. Boulter, d.
1744	War declared in Great Britain against France, March 31.	L. Theobard, d.
—	The king of Prussia takes Prague.	Jo. O'Zell, d.
—	Anson completes his voyage round the world.	F. Peck, <i>Ant.</i> , d.
1745	FRANCIS I. (of Lorraine) emperor of Germany.	Card. de Fleury, d.
—	Quadruple alliance between Britain, Austria, Holland, and Poland.	H. Rigaud, <i>Paint.</i> , d.
—	The allied army defeated by the French at Fontenoy, April 30.	Leon Leo, <i>Music.</i> , d.
—	Louisburg and Cape Breton taken by the British troops, June 6.	
—	The Rebellion breaks out in Scotland, July.	A. Pope, <i>Poet.</i> , d.
—	Defeat of the king's forces by the Rebels at Prestonpana, September 21.	Roger Gale, <i>Ant.</i> , d.
—	Treaty of Dresden between Prussia, Poland, Austria, and Saxony, December 25.	
—		Dr. J. Swift, d.
—		Sir Ro. Walpole, d.

- A.C.*
 1746 Defeat of the king's forces by the Rebels at Falkirk, January 17.
 — Ferdinand VI. king of Spain.
 — Frederic V. king of Denmark.
 — Count Saxe takes Brussels and Antwerp.
 — Victory of Culloden, which puts an end to the Rebellion in Scotland, April 16.
 — Lords Balmerino and Kilmarnock beheaded, August 18.
 — Saxe defeats the Allies at Raucoux, Oct. 11.
 — Dreadful earthquake at Lima, October 17.
 1747 Lord Lovat beheaded, April 9.
 — French defeat the allied army at Lafeldt, July 2.
 — Bergen-op-Zoom taken by the French, Sept. 5.
 — The French fleet defeated by Hawke, Oct. 14.
 — Kouli-Khan murdered.—Revolution in Persia.
 1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between England, France, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, and Holland, Oct. 7.
 1749 League between the Pope, Venetians, &c. against the Algerines, &c.
 1750 Joseph king of Portugal.
 — Academy of Sciences founded at Stockholm.
 — Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Spain, October 5.
 1751 Adolphus of Holstein king of Sweden.
 — Peace between Spain and Portugal.
 1752 New Style introduced in Britain, September 2 reckoned 14.
 1753 The British Museum established in Montague-house.
 1754 Great eruption of *Ætna*.
 — Great earthquake at Constantinople and Cairo, September 2.
 —) Othman III. emperor of the Turks.
 1755 Defeat of Braddock near Fort du Quesne, July 9.
 — Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, November 1.
 1756 War declared between Great Britain and France, May 18.
 — Surrender of Minorca by Blakeney, June 28.
 1757 Damiens attempts to assassinate Louis XV.
 — King of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Reichenberg and Prague.
 — Dauh repulses the king of Prussia at Kolin, June 18.
 — Verden and Bremen taken by the French, August.
 — Convention of Closterseven, September 8.
 — The Prussians defeat the French and Austrians at Rosbach, November 5.
 — The king of Prussia master of Silesia, Dec. 21.
 —) Mustapha III. emperor of the Turks.
 1758 ¶ Pope Clement XIII. (Rezzonico.)
 — Senegal taken by the English, May 1.
 — Cape Breton taken by the English, June 17.
 — The English repulsed at Ticonderoga, July 8.
- Illustrious Persons.*
 C. Maclaurin, *Math.*, *d.*
 Barratier, *Phil.*, *d.*
 T. Southern, *Poet.*, *d.*
 1747 Barbeyrac, *Pol. Phil.*, *d.*
 Le Sage, *Gil Blas*, *d.*
 Dillenius, *Bot.*, *d.*
 M. Mattaire, *d.*
 Abp. Potter, *d.*
 E. Holdsworth, *Cr.*, *d.*
 President Forbes, *d.*
 1748 Thomson, *Poet.*, *d.*
 Dr. Is. Watts, *d.*
 Dr. F. Hutcheson, *d.*
 Dr. G. Cheyne, *d.*
 Rev. C. Pitt, *Poet.*, *d.*
 Burlamique, *d.*
 T. Odell, *Dram.*, *d.*
 N. Freret, *Chron.*, *d.*
 Dr. Con. Middleton, *d.*
 And. Baxter, *d.*
 Aaron Hill, *Poet.*, *d.*
 Ap. Zeno, *Dram.*, *d.*
 Bach, *Mus.*, *d.*
 1751 St. John, Ld. Bolingbroke, *d.*
 Dr. A. Monro, sen., *d.*
 Dr. Doddridge, *d.*
 1752 Cheselden, *Anat.*, *d.*
 Bp. Butler, *d.*
 W. Whiston, *Mat.*, *d.*
 Card. Alberoni, *d.*
 St. Real, *Sc. of Govt.*
 1753 Bp. Berkeley, *d.*
 Sir Hans Sloane, *d.*
 1754 Dr. Rd. Meade, *d.*
 H. Fielding, *Novel.*, *d.*
 De Moirne, *Math.*, *d.*
 C. Wolf, *Phil.*, *d.*
 J. Gibbs, *Arch.*, *d.*
 1755 Montesquieu, *Sp. of Laws*, *d.*
 Durante, *Mus.*, *d.*
 Mosheim, *Ec. Hist.*, *d.*
 Dr. R. Rawlinson, *d.*
 1756 Gilb. West, *d.*
 Cassini, *d.*
 1757 C. Cibber, *Com.*, *d.*
 Calmet, *Benedict.*, *d.*
 W. Maitland, *Hist.*, *d.*
 Fontenelle, *Poet.*, *d.*
 Herring, *Abp. of Cant.*, *d.*
 Cha. Viner, *Law.*, *d.*
 Reaumur, *Therm.*, *d.*

- A.C.
 1758 The British troops take Louisburg, July 27.
 — Dauhns defeats the Prussians at Hochkirchen, Oct. 14.
 — The British take Fort du Quesne, Nov. 25.
 — Goree taken by Keppel, December 29.
 1759 Guadaloupe surrendered to the English, May 1.
 — French defeated by the allied army at Minden, Aug. 1.
 — French fleet defeated by Boscawen off Gibraltar, August 18.
 — Charles III. king of Spain.
 — The Jesuits expelled from Portugal, September 3.
 — General Wolfe takes Quebec, September 17.
 — French fleet defeated by Hawke off Belleisle, Nov. 20.
 1760 Montreal and Canada taken by the British, Sept. 8.
 — George III. king of Great Britain, October 25.
 — The king of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Torgau, November 3.
 1761 Pondicherry taken by the English, January 15.
 1762 Martinico surrendered to the English, February 4.
 — Peter III. emperor of Russia.
 — The Jesuits banished from France, August.
 — Havannah taken by the English, August 12.
 1763 Peace of Paris, between England, France, and Spain, Feb. 10.
 — Catherine II. empress of Russia.
 1764 Stanislaus II. king of Poland.
 — Sujah Dowla defeated by Munro at Buxar, Oct. 23.
 — Byron's discoveries in the South Seas.
 1765 JOSEPH II. emperor of Germany.
 1766 American stamp act repealed, March 18.
 — The Jesuits expelled from Bohemia and Denmark.
 — Christian VII. King of Denmark.
 1767 The Jesuits expelled from Spain, Genoa, and Venice.
 — Wallis and Carteret's discoveries in the S. Seas.
 1768 Royal Academy of Arts established at London.
 — The Jesuits expelled from Naples, Malta, and Parma.
 — Bruce discovers the source of the Nile.
 — Bougainville's discoveries in the South Seas.
 1769 ¶ Pope Clement XIV. (Ganganelli.)
 — Cook's first discoveries in the South Seas.
 — Corsica taken by the French, June 13.
 1770 Earthquake at St. Domingo.
 1771 Gustavus III. king of Sweden.
 1772 Revolution in Sweden, August 19.
 — Poland dismembered by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
 1773 Cook's second voyage and discoveries.
 — The society of the Jesuits suppressed by the pope's bull, August 25.
 1774 Louis XVI. king of France.
- Illustrious Persons.*
 Rev. J. Hervey, d.
 L. Heister, *Anat.*, d.
 Hoadley, *Dram.*, d.
 1759 Handel, *Mus.*, d.
 Collins, *Poet.*, d.
 1760 Ct. Zinzendorf, d.
 1761 Dr. T. Sherlock, d.
 Bp. Hoadley, d.
 S. Richardson, *Nov.*, d.
 Dr. J. Leland, d.
 Stephen Hales, d.
 1762 Dr. J. Bradley, *Ast.*, d.
 Roubilliac, *Sculp.*, d.
 Geminiani, *Mus.*, d.
 Lady M. W. Montague, d.
 Lord Anson, d.
 1763 N. Hooke, *Hist.*, d.
 Shenstone, *Poet.*, d.
 1764 R. Dodsley, *Poet.*, d.
 Jas. Anderson, *Hist.*, d.
 Churchill, *Poet.*, d.
 W. Hogarth, *Paint.*, d.
 Count Algarotti, d.
 1765 E. Young, *Poet.*, d.
 Dr. Stukely, *Ant.*, d.
 R. Simson, *Math.*, d.
 D. Mallet, *Poet.*, d.
 1766 Dr. Birch, *Hist.*, d.
 Dr. J. Leland, d.
 Dr. S. Chandler, d.
 Dr. R. Whytt, *Phys.*, d.
 Dr. Zach. Grey, d.
 1767 Postlethwaite, d.
 Vattel, *L. of Nats.*, d.
 1768 L. Sterne.
 Secker, *Abp.*, d.
 Short, *Opt.*, d.
 Abbé Winkelman, d.
 Dr. N. Lardner, d.
 1769 R. Smith, *Math.*, d.
 1770 Abbé Nollet, *Phil.*, d.
 Rysbrach, *Sculp.*, d.
 W. Guthrie, *Hist.*, d.
 Chatterton, *Poet.*, d.
 Dr. T. Jortin, d.
 Akenside, *Poet.*, d.
 Smollet, *Hist.*, d.
 Alex. Cruden, d.
 Geo. Whitfield, d.
 1771 Gray, *Poet.*, d.
 C. A. Helvetius, d.
 1772 Nollekius, *Sculp.*, d.
 1773 Ph. E. of Chesterfield, d.
 G. Ld. Lyttleton, d.

- A.C.*
 1774 D) Abdhul-Achmet emperor of the Turks.
 — Warren Hastings first British governor-general of India.
 — American War commenced, November 15.
 1775 Battle of Bunker's-hill in America, June 7.
 — ¶ Pope Pius VI. (Braschi.)
 1776 The Americans declare their independence, July 4.
 1777 Mary queen of Portugal.
 — Philadelphia taken by the British troops, Oct. 3.
 — Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, Oct. 7.
 1778 League between the French and Americans, Oct. 30.
 1779 Peace between the Imperialists and Prussians, May 13.
 — Great eruption of Vesuvius, August 8.
 — Siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards, July.
 — Captain Cook killed at Owhyhee.
 1780 Sir G. Rodney defeats the Spanish fleet near Cape Vincent, January 16.
 — Charlestown surrenders to the British, May 12.
 — Riots in London on account of the Popish bill, June 2.
 — Cornwallis defeats the Americans at Cambden, Aug. 16.
 — War between England and Holland, Dec. 20.
 1781 Americans defeated at Guilford by Cornwallis.
 — Surrender of the British troops to the Americans and French at Yorktown, October 18.
 1782 Rodney defeats the French fleet off Dominica, April 12.
 — Sir Edw. Hughes defeats the French fleet under Suffrein in the East Indies, Feb. 17.
 1783 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, and the Independence of America acknowledged, Jan. 20.
 1784 Peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
 1785 Alliance between Austria, France, and Holland, Nov. 9.
 1786 Frederick IV. king of Prussia.
 — Marquis Cornwallis governor-general of India.
 — Commercial treaty between England and France, September 26.
 1787 The assembly of the Notables at Paris, Feb. 22.
 — Mr Hastings impeached for misdemeanors in the government of India, May 21.
 1788 Prince Charles Edward died at Rome, Jan. 31.
 — The Parliament of Paris remonstrates against the use of lettres de cachet, March 16.
 — Defensive alliance between England and Holland, April 25.
 — The Regency bill debated by the House of Commons, December 10.
 — Cotton first planted in Georgia.
 1789 The abolition of the slave-trade proposed in Parliament.
- Illustrious Persons.*
 La Condramini, *d.*
 Goldsmith, *Poet, d.*
 Z. Pearce, *Bp. of Roch., d.*
 H. Baker, *N. Phil., d.*
 1775 Hawksworth, *d.*
 J. Campbell, *Hist., d.*
 1776 D. Hume, *Hist., d.*
 J. Ferguson, *Math., d.*
 1777 S. Foote, *Com., d.*
 W. Bowyer, *Print., d.*
 Haller, *Phys., d.*
 Dr. Jo. Gregory, *d.*
 Voltaire, *d.*
 Linnæus, *Nat., d.*
 J. J. Rousseau, *d.*
 1779 Garrick, *Com., d.*
 W. Pitt, 1st E. of Chatham, *d.*
 Warburton, *Bp. of Gloster, d.*
 Armstrong, *Poet, d.*
 1780 Sir W. Blackstone, *Law., d.*
 Dr. Gaubius, *d.*
 Sir Jas. Stewart, *d.*
 1781 Lessing, *Ger. lit., d.*
 1782 Bp. Newton, *d.*
 Metastachio, *Poet, d.*
 Home, *Ld. Kames, d.*
 Dr. Wil. Hunter, *d.*
 Bernovilli, *d.*
 Dr. Sollander, *d.*
 D'Anville, *d.*
 D'Alembert, *Phil., d.*
 Euler, *Math., d.*
 Dr. Sam. Johnson, *d.*
 Whitehead, *Poet, d.*
 Diderot, *Phil., d.*
 1785 Dr. Burn, *Law., d.*
 R. Glover, *Poet, d.*
 L' Abbé Millot, *d.*
 Abbé de Mably, *d.*
 1786 Jonas Hanway, *d.*
 Bp. Louth, *d.*
 Soame Jenyns, *d.*
 Bp. Edward Lane, *d.*
 F. Sydenham, *d.*
 Ch. Gluck, *Op. Music., d.*
 Dr. Abel, *Mus., d.*
 Ld. Pres. Dundas, *d.*
 J. Stewart, *F.R.S., d.*
 Gainsborough, *Paint., d.*
 T. Sheridan, *d.*
 Savary, *Voy., d.*

- A.C.*
 1789) Selim III. emperor of the Turks, April.
 — The Assembly of the States-General opened at Paris, May 5.—Form themselves into the National Assembly, June 16.—The Bastille taken, and the governor massacred, July 14.—The princes of the blood and chief noblesse leave France, July.—The king of France brought to Paris, accepts the Declaration of the Rights of Man, October 6.—Decree for dividing France into eighty-three departments, October 30.
 1790 Monastic establishments suppressed in France, February 13.—Titles of nobility suppressed in France, Feb. 24.
 — War in India with Tippoo Sultan, May 1.
 — General confederation at Paris, in the Champ de Mars, July 14.
 — LEOPOLD II. emperor of Germany.
 1791 The king of France with his family escape from Paris, but are intercepted at Varennes, June 22.
 — Riots at Birmingham, July 14.
 — The king of France accepts the Constitution, Sept. 14.
 1792 FRANCIS II. emperor of Germany.
 — Sir John Shore governor-general of India.
 — Gustavus III. king of Sweden assassinated by Ankerstroom, March 29.
 — Gustavus IV. king of Sweden.—Duke of Sudermania regent in his minority.
 — An armed mob forces the Tuileries, and insults the king of France, June 20.
 — The Duke of Brunswick, with the armies of Austria and Prussia, arrives at Coblentz, July 3.
 — The National Assembly decrees the country in danger, July 11.
 — Petion and the community of Paris demand the king's deposition, August 3.
 — The Tuileries again attacked.—The king and queen of France take refuge in the National Assembly.—The Swiss guards massacred by the populace, August 10.
 — The royal authority suspended by the National Assembly, August 10.
 — The Royal Family imprisoned in the Temple, Aug. 14.
 — Massacre of the state prisoners at Paris, Sept. 2, 3.
 — National Convention constituted—the king deposed, and France declared a Republic, Sept. 21.
 — The Republic decrees fraternity and assistance to all nations in the recovery of their liberty, Nov. 19.
 — The Convention decrees the trial of Louis XVI. Dec. 2.—Brought to trial, Dec. 14.
 1793 LOUIS XVI. condemned to death by a ma-
- Illustrious Persons.*
 1787 Ct. de Buffon, *Nat.*, *d.*
 1788 Gesner, *d.*
 W. J. Meikle, *Poet*, *d.*
 Rev. J. Logan, *Poet*, *d.*
 Ledyard, *Trav.*, *d.*
 Sir J. Hawkins, *d.*
 Marq. Mirabeau, *d.*
 Vernet, *Paint.*, *d.*
 Ld. Pres. Miller, *d.*
 L' Abbè Brotier, *d.*
 Will. Cullen, *Phys.*, *d.*
 Adam Smith, *Polit. Econ.*, *d.*
 Benj. Franklin, *Phil.*, *d.*
 Jn. Howard, *Philan.*, *d.*
 T. Wharton, *Poet*, *d.*
 General Roy, *d.*
 W. Henry, *Hist.*, *d.*
 Dr. Rd. Price, *d.*
 Dr. T. Blacklock, *d.*
 Rev. Jo. Wesley, *d.*
 Fr. Grose, *Ant.*, *d.*
 Mozart, *Music.*, *d.*
 Michaelis, *d.*
 Galvani, *d.*
 Dr. Born, *Min.*, *d.*
 Sir J. Reynolds, *Paint.*, *d.*
 Will. Tytler, *d.*
 Horne, *Bp. of Nora.*, *d.*
 Rob. Adam, *Arch.*, *d.*
 John E. of Bute, *d.*
 Sir R. Arkwright, *d.*
 Sir R. Strange, *Engr.*, *d.*
 Lord Hailes, *d.*
 Smeaton, *Mechan.*, *d.*
 Lord Rodney, *d.*
 Thorpe, *Antq.*, *d.*
 Lord North, *d.*
 Ph. Thicknesse, *Trav.*, *d.*

A. C.

- majority of five voices, Jan. 17.—Beheaded, Jan. 21.
- 1793 The Alien Bill passed in the British House of Commons, January 24.
- The French Convention declares war against England and Holland, February 1.
- Lyons declares for Louis XVII., February 28.
- First coalition against France: directed by England—of Russia, Sardinia, Naples, Prussia, Austria, Tuscany, &c.—namely all Europe except Sweden, Denmark and Turkey.
- Decree for the French people rising in a mass, August 20.
- Surrender of Toulon to Lord Hood's fleet, August 28.
- Marie Antoinette queen of France condemned to death by the Convention, and beheaded the same day, October 15.
- Brissot and the chiefs of the Girondist party guillotined.
- Robespierre triumphant, November.
- The English evacuate Toulon, December 19.
- 1794 The princess Elizabeth of France beheaded, May 12.
- The Habeas Corpus act suspended, May.
- Howe defeats the French fleet off Ushant, June 1.
- Robespierre, with his chief partisans, guillotined, July 28.
- Battle of Warsaw.—The Polish liberties destroyed, October 12.
- The Jacobin Club suppressed, October 18.
- Trials of Hardy, Tooke, Thelwell, &c., for treason, November.
- 1795 The Stadtholder takes refuge in England.—Holland overrun by the French, January.
- Mr. Hastings' trial ended, by his acquittal, April 22.
- Lyons bombarded, laid in ruins, and all its loyal inhabitants massacred, May.
- Louis XVII. died in prison at Paris, June 8.
- The Cape of Good Hope taken by the British under Craig, Clarke, and Elphinstone, Sept. 16.
- Great disorders in Ireland, Oct., Nov., Dec.
- Stanislaus II. resigns the crown of Poland.—The kingdom divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, November 25.
- Ceylon taken by the British under Gen. J. Stewart, and Com. Ranier, February 15.
- 1796 The Count d'Artois, with his suite, take up their residence at Edinburgh, January 6.
- The East India Company votes an indemnification and recompense to Mr Hastings, Jan.
- The French overrun and plunder Italy.
- Malmesbury negotiates for peace at Paris, Oct. 28.

Illustrious Persons.

- Dr. W. Robertson, *Hist., d.*
- Mrs Griffiths, *Nov., d.*
- Will. E. of Mansfield, *d.*
- Dr. Mudge, *Opt., d.*
- Will. Hudson, *F.R.S., d.*
- Ld. Gardenstone, *d.*
- J. Thomas, *Bp. of Rock.*
- D. Serres, *Paint., d.*
- Baron de Tott, *d.*
- Rd. Tickall, *d.*
- Dr. John Hunter, *d.*
- Goldoni, *It. Com., d.*
- 1794 E. Gibbon, *Hist., d.*
- E. of Camden, *d.*
- Woodward, *Bp. of Cloyne, d.*
- Dr. J. Roebuck, *d.*
- Charles Pigott, *d.*
- Earl Bathurst, *d.*
- G. Colman, *Dram., d.*
- Card. de Bernis, *d.*
- James Bruce, *Trav., d.*
- M. de Condorcet, *d.*
- Lavoisier, *Chem., d.*
- Marg. of Beccaria, *d.*
- 1795 Sir Will. Jones, *d.*
- Rev. Dr. A. Gerard, *d.*
- Dr. T. Balguy, *d.*
- James Boswell, *d.*
- Will. Smellie, *d.*
- R. Bakewell, *Agri., d.*
- R. Southgate, *Antiq., d.*
- Josiah Wedgewood, *d.*
- Barthelemy, (*Trav. of Anach.*)
- Zimmerman, *d.*
- A. Kippis, *Biog., d.*
- 1796 Robt. Burns, *Poet, d.*
- J. Anderson, *F.R.S., d.*
- Dr. G. Campbell, *d.*
- Dr. Jas. Fordyce, *d.*
- Dr. Thos. Reid, *d.*
- Henry Flood, *M.P., d.*
- Jas. Macpherson, *d.*

- A.C.*
 1796 Death of Catherine II.—Paul emperor of Russia, November 17.
 — Lord Malmesbury quits Paris, December 20.
 1797 A mutiny of the British fleet at Portsmouth and the Nore suppressed, May, June.
 — The Scots Militia Bill passed, July.
 — Negotiations at Lisle for a peace broken off.
 — The Dutch fleet captured by Lord Duncan, Oct. 11.
 1798 Second coalition against France—of England, Russia, Naples, Sicily, Turkey, and Austria; Prussia, Holland, and Belgium, neutral.
 — Marquis Wellesley governor-general of India.
 — The Papal government suppressed by the French.—The Pope quits Rome, Feb. 26.
 — Ireland in open rebellion, May, June, &c.
 — Lord Nelson totally defeats the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1.
 — The Swiss finally defeated, and their independence abolished, September 19.
 — The French fleet defeated by Sir J. Warren, Oct. 12.
 1799 A union with Ireland proposed in the British Parliament, Jan. 22.—Rejected by the Commons of Ireland, Jan. 24.
 — Seringapatam taken by general Harris and Sir Dav. Baird, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.
 — The French under Bonaparte defeated by Sir Sydney Smith at Acre, May 21.
 — Expedition of the British against Holland, Aug.
 — Death of pope Pius VI., September.
 — The British troops evacuate Holland, November.
 — A revolution at Paris.—Bonaparte declared First Consul, December 25.
1800
 — The Irish House of Commons agree to the Union with Great Britain, February 5.—Similar vote of the House of Lords, 17.
 — ¶ Pope Pius VII. (Chiaramonte.)
 — Bonaparte defeats the Austrians in the battle of Marengo in Italy, June 14.
 — Malta taken by the British forces, September 5.
 1801 First meeting of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, January.
 — Pitt resigns, after being premier eighteen years, February 9.—Addington premier.
 — Battle of Alexandria.—The French defeated, and Sir Ralph Abercrombie killed, March 21.
 — The emperor Paul dethroned and put to death.—Alexander I. emperor of Russia, March 23.
 — Battle of Copenhagen.—The Danish fleet taken and destroyed by lord Nelson, April 3.
 — Taking of Cairo by the British troops, May 11.
 — Alexandria surrendered to the British, Aug. 27.
 — Preliminaries of Peace signed between Great Britain and France, October 1.
 1802 The Catholic religion re-established in France.
 — The Peace of Amiens signed, March 27.

Illustrious Persons.

- 1797 Edm. Burke, *d.*
 Wal. Minto, *Math., d.*
 Will. Mason, *Poet., d.*
 Dr. Jas. Hutton, *d.*
 Hor. Walpole, *E. of Oxford, d.*
 Dr. Tissot, *d.*
 J. Wright, *Paint., d.*
 Dr. Rich. Farmer, *d.*
 Dr. Enfield, *d.*
 C. Macklin, *Com., d.*
 D. de Nivernois, *d.*
 Daniel Webb, *d.*
 Dr. Ed. Waring, *d.*
 J. Z. Holwell, *d.*
 P. F. Suhm, *d.*
 W. Wale, *F.R.S., d.*
 J. Reinh. Foster, *d.*
 J. H. Artzenius, *d.*
 J. P. Pancton, *d.*
 C. M. Cracherode, *d.*
 L. Galvani, *d.*
 W. Seaward, *d.*
 C. Borda, *d.*
 Rev. J. Tucker, *d.*
 W. Melmouth, *d.*
 Bacon, *Sculpt., d.*
 Lord Kames, *d.*
 Dr. C. Morton, *d.*
 Dr. John Strange, *d.*
 Dr. Jos. Towers, *d.*
 Dr. Jos. Black, *d.*
 L. Spallanzani, *d.*
 Marmontel, *d.*
 Beaumarchais, *d.*
 Washington, Dec. 14.
1800
 Bry. Edwards, *d.*
 Daines Barrington, *d.*
 W. Cowper, *Poet., d.*
 Jos. Warton, *Poet., d.*
 Mallet du Pau, *d.*
 Dr. H. Blair, *d.*
 J. Bapt. Munos, *d.*
1801
 Sir G. Staunton, *d.*
 Rob. Orme, *Hist., d.*
 C. Lavater, *d.*
 T. Malton, *Math., d.*
 Dr. W. Heberden, *d.*
 Rev. W. Drake, *d.*
 Prof. J. Millar, *d.*
 Gilb. Wakefield, *d.*
 Cimarosa, *Mus., d.*
 Dr. Pultney, *Botan., d.*
 Dolomieu, *Nat., d.*

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1802	Bonaparte elected Chief Consul for ten years, May.	1802
—	Bonaparte declared Chief Consul for life, July.	Ld. Kenyon, C.I., <i>d.</i>
—	The Prince of Orange renounces the office of Stadtholder, August.	M. de Calonne, <i>d.</i>
1803	Execution of colonel Despard for high treason.	Dr. E. Darwin, <i>d.</i>
—	The emperor of Germany ratifies the new organization of Germany, April.	John Moore, M.D., <i>d.</i>
—	Dissolution of the Peace with France.—Lord Whitworth, ambassador, quits Paris, May 18.	Mrs Chapone, <i>Mis. L., d.</i>
—	The French seize Hanover, June 4.	Jos. Strutt, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
—	The British troops enter Delhi, and the Great Mogul puts himself under protection of general Lake, September.	Dr. Arnold, <i>Mus., d.</i>
1804	The duke d'Enghien murdered by order of Bonaparte, 15th March.	Dr. H. Hunter, <i>Biog., d.</i>
—	Pitt re-appointed prime minister, 10th May.	1803
—	Bonaparte proclaimed emperor of the French, 20th May.	V. Alfieri, <i>It. Trag., d.</i>
—	Dessalines in St. Domingo declares himself emperor of Hayti, October.	Dr. Jas. Beattie, <i>d.</i>
1805	Third coalition against France—of England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden.	Klopstock, <i>Poet, d.</i>
—	The Spaniards declare war against England, Jan.	Sir W. Hamilton, <i>Arch., d.</i>
—	Bonaparte assumes the title of king of Italy.	La Harpe, <i>Critic, d.</i>
—	Impeachment of lord Melville—is acquitted.	W. Jackson, <i>Mus., d.</i>
—	Lord Nelson defeats the fleets of France and Spain at Trafalgar.—Takes 20 sail, and is killed in the engagement, 21st October.	J. Hoole, <i>Transl., d.</i>
—	The French defeat the Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz, December 2.	T. Astle, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
1806	Death of Pitt, 23d Jan.—Lord Grenville premier.	Jas. Ritson, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
—	Louis Bonaparte proclaimed king of Holland, June 5.	1804
—	Sir John Stuart defeats the French under Regnier at Maida in Calabria, July.	R. Potter, <i>Transl., d.</i>
—	Death of Charles James Fox, September 13.	J. Priestley, L.L.D., <i>d.</i>
—	Rupture of the negotiation for Peace with France, and return of earl Lauderdale, Oct.	M. Necker, <i>d.</i>
—	Fourth coalition against France—of England, Russia, Prussia, Saxony, and Sweden.	Didot, <i>Ster. Print., d.</i>
—	The French defeat the Prussians at Jena, which annihilates the Prussian power, October 14.	Pallas, <i>Trav., d.</i>
—	Hamburg occupied by the French, November.	W. Gilpin, <i>Mus., d.</i>
—	Bonaparte declares the British Isles in a state of blockade, November.	Jac. Bryant, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
1807	The slave trade abolished by act of parliament, February.	Kant, <i>Philos., d.</i>
—	Duke of Portland premier.	Jacobi, <i>Philos., d.</i>
—	Lord Minto governor-general of India.	1805
—	Parliament dissolved after a session only of four months, April.	Ld. Chanc. Rosslyn, <i>d.</i>
—	Dantzic taken by the French, May.	Dr. Jo. Robison, <i>d.</i>
—	Revolution at Constantinople, Sultan Selim deposed, and Sultan Mustapha proclaimed, May.	Ar. Murphy, <i>Poet, d.</i>
		W. Paley, D.D., <i>d.</i>
		Jas. Currie, M.D., <i>d.</i>
		<i>Life of Burns.</i>
		Prof. Gmelin, <i>d.</i>
		Julien, <i>Sculp., d.</i>
		F. Schiller, <i>Poet, d.</i>
		1806
		E. Edwards, <i>d.</i>
		Prof. A. Dalzel, <i>d.</i>
		G. Stevens, <i>Critic, d.</i>
		Eliz. Carter, <i>d.</i>
		Abbé Raynal, <i>d.</i>
		Earl Macartney, <i>d.</i>
		Rev. J. Brand, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
		Lord Thurlow, <i>d.</i>
		Bp. S. Horsley, <i>d.</i>
		Jas. Barry, <i>Paint., d.</i>
		Charlotte Smith, <i>Poet, d.</i>
		1807
		Des Enfans, <i>d.</i>
		G. Attwood, <i>d.</i>
		Jo. Lockman, D.D., <i>d.</i>
		G. Mason, <i>Critic, d.</i>
		Stuart (Card. York), <i>d.</i>

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1807	Battle of Friedland.—Russians defeated by the French, June 14.	1807
—	Peace signed at Tilsit between France and Russia and Prussia, June.	Markham, <i>Abp. of York.</i>
—	Copenhagen bombarded, and all the Danish fleet surrendered to the British, September 7, under lord Cathcart and admiral Gambier.	Willis, <i>Phys., d.</i>
—	The British troops evacuate Egypt, October.	Lalande, <i>Astron., d.</i>
—	The Prince Regent and Royal Family of Portugal embark for Brazil, November 29.	J. Opie, <i>Paint., d.</i>
1808	The French prohibit all commerce with Great Britain, January.	L. De Lolme, <i>d.</i>
—	A new French nobility created by Bonaparte, Jan.	J. Bernouilli, <i>Math., d.</i>
—	The French troops enter Rome, February.	Beethoven, <i>Music., d.</i>
—	Frederick VI. king of Denmark, March.	1808
—	Charles IV. abdicates the crown of Spain to his son Ferdinand VII., March 19.	Bp. R. Hurd, <i>d.</i>
—	The French under Murat enter Madrid, March 23.	A. Dalrymple, <i>Geog., d.</i>
—	British goods prohibited to be imported into Russia, April.	A. Hunter, <i>M.D., d.</i>
—	Ferdinand VII. is compelled to renounce the throne of Spain, and is sent with the Royal Family to Paris.	Mad. Cottin, <i>Nov., d.</i>
—	Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed king of Spain, June 16.	Dr. Ja. Anderson, <i>Agric., d.</i>
—	The Portuguese arm against the French.—The Spanish Patriots solicit aid from Great Britain, June.	J. Ireland, <i>Misc., d.</i>
—) The Grand Seignior Mustapha deposed.—Mahomet VI. Turkish emperor, July 28.	John Home, <i>Traged., d.</i>
—	Battle of Vimiera in Portugal.—The French under Junot defeated by Sir A. Wellesley, Aug. 21.	W. Haweis, <i>Philan., d.</i>
—	Convention at Cintra, August 30.	Angel. Kauffman, <i>Paint., d.</i>
—	Conference held at Erfurth between the Russian emperor Alexander and Bonaparte, Sept. 2.	Rich. Porson, <i>d.</i>
—	The ports of Holland shut against Britain, Nov. 27.	1809
1809	Battle of Corunna.—The French defeated.—Sir John Moore killed.—The British army re-embark for England, January 16.	Von Muller, <i>Hist., d.</i>
—	The duke of York accused before the Commons of malversation in office as Commander-in-chief.—Acquitted, March 17.	Dr. Alex. Adam, <i>d.</i>
—	Spenser Percival premier.	Anne Seward, <i>Misc., d.</i>
—	Gustavus king of Sweden deposed, March 13.	Rd. Gough, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
—	Fifth coalition against France: of England, Austria, Spain, and Portugal.	T. Holcroft, <i>Dram., d.</i>
—	The Austrians defeated by the French in the battles of Ratisbon and Eckmuhl, April 20, 23.	Dr. D. Pitcairn, <i>d.</i>
—	The battle of Talavera, in which the French are defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, July 27.	Bp. Porteus, <i>d.</i>
		Tib. Cavallo, <i>Phil., d.</i>
		Joseph Haydn.
		Ch. E. of Liverpool

A.C.

- 1809 The island of Walcheren taken by the British, July 31.—Evacuated, November 24.
 — The 50th anniversary of George III.'s reign celebrated as a jubilee, October 25.
 — The French fleet in the Mediterranean defeated by lord Collingwood, October.
 1810 Bonaparte divorces the empress Josephine, Jan. 16.
 — Guadaloupe, the last of the French West India islands, surrenders to the British, March 5.
 — Marriage of Bonaparte with princess Maria Louisa of Austria, April 1.
 — Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower for a libel on the House of Commons, April 5.
 — Louis Bonaparte abdicates the throne of Holland, July 1.
 — The isle of Bourbon taken by the British, July 8.
 — Bernadotte chosen crown prince of Sweden, August 21.
 — Battle of Busaco.—The French defeated by lord Wellington, September 27.
 — The first meeting of the Cortes in Spain since the usurpation of Bonaparte, September 28.
 — All British merchandise burned in France, Oct. 19.
 — The deposed Gustavus of Sweden arrived in England, November 14.
 — Isle of France captured by general Abercromby and admiral Bertie, December 5.
 — Lucien Bonaparte and his family arrived in this country from Malta, December 13.
 1811 The Prince of Wales regent, under certain limitations, Jan. 10.
 — Massacre of about 1600 Mamelukes in Cairo, March 1.
 — Battle of Barossa.—The French defeated by general Graham, March 5.
 — The empress of France Maria Louisa, delivered of a son, who is styled King of Rome, March 20.
 — Island of Anholt attacked by a Danish force of nearly 4000 men; but are repulsed by a British force of 150 men, under Capt. Maurice, leaving behind them 500 prisoners, March 27.
 — Battle of Albuera.—The French under Soult defeated by Beresford, with the loss of 9000 men, May 16.
 — Erruption of a volcano in the sea, off the island of St. Michael, June.
 — Conflagrations in the forests of the Tyrol, by which 64 villages with 10,000 head of cattle were destroyed, and about 24,000 persons deprived of habitations.
 — Feudal rights abolished in Spain, August 19.
 — A comet appeared in England, September 1.

Illustrious Persons.

1810

W. Windham, *d.*
 Adm. Ld. Collingwood, *d.*
 Caleb Whiteford, *d.*
 Dr. R. Chandler, *Trav.*, *d.*
 Montgolfier, *d.*
 L. Schiavonetti, *Engr.*, *d.*
 C. Grignion, *H. Engr.*, *d.*
 Henry Cavendish, *d.*
 Nevil Maskelyne, *d.*

1811

R. Cumberland, *Dram.*, *d.*
 Percy, *Bp. of Dromore*, *d.*
 Jas. Grahame, *Poet*, *d.*
 Dr. Jo. Leyden, *d.*
 Alb. Beaumont, *Trav.*, *d.*
 Mat. Raine, *D.D.*, *d.*
 H. R. Reynolds, *M.D.*, *d.*
 Dr. Alex. Anderson, *d.*
 C. B. Tyre, *F.R.S.*, *d.*
 Sir F. Bourgeois, *Paint.*, *d.*
 Robert Raikes, *Inst of Sunday Schools*, *d.*

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1811	Serious riots at Nottingham; weavers destroy articles of machinery, Nov. 16.	
1812	Ciudad Rodrigo taken by storm, Jan. 19: lord Wellington thereupon created Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo.	1812
—	Destructive earthquake at Caraccas, &c., March 26.	Ed. Hasted, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
—	Badajoz taken by storm, April 6.	Theoph. Jones, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
—	Dreadful eruption of a volcano at St. Vincent, April 30.	Dr. Garthshore, d.
—	The Prime Minister, Spencer Perceval, assassinated in the House of Commons by Bellingham, May 11.	J. Horne Tooke, d.
—	Lord Liverpool premier.	Louthsburg, d.
—	Battle of Salamanca, July 22; general illuminations in London on three successive nights.	Rob. William, M.D., d.
—	Madrid captured by the British, August 12.	Spencer Percival, d.
—	Smolensko entered by the French, August 18.	Edm. Malone, <i>Crit.</i> , d.
—	Battle of Moskwa, September 7.	Rev. L. Dutens, d.
—	The French enter Moscow, which the Russians had previously fired, September 14.	C. S. Sonnini, d.
—	The passage of the Berezyna cost the French 20,000 men, Nov. 28.	Adm. de Winter, d.
—	Bonaparte returns to Paris at midnight, Dec. 18.	Willdenow, <i>Botan.</i> , d.
1813	A Concordat signed at Fontainebleau, between Bonaparte and the pope, Pius VII., Jan. 25.	C. G. Heyne, d.
—	Sixth great coalition against France; of England, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden.	Gen. Vallancey, d.
—	Bonaparte again left Paris for the seat of war—Maria Louisa Empress Regent during his absence, April 15.	Prince Kaunitz, d.
—	The Spanish Cortes abolish the Inquisition in Spain, April.	Baron Nolken, d.
—	Lord Hastings governor-general of India.	
—	The Russian Government officially estimated the loss of the French and their allies, in their invasion of Russia, as follows:—Killed, 24 Generals, 2000 Staff and other Officers, 204,400 rank and file; Prisoners, 43 Generals, 3441 Staff and other Officers, 233,222 rank and file; Taken, 1131 pieces of cannon, 63 pairs of colours and standards, one marshal's staff, about 100,000 muskets, and about 27,000 ammunition waggons. In the three governments of Moscow, Witepsk, and Mohilow, 253,000 dead bodies, and in the city of Wilna and its environs 53,000 were burned before the 27th of March.	1813
—	Battle of Lutzen, May 2.	A. F. Tytler, <i>Elements of History.</i>
—	Sir Thomas Plomer first Vice-Chancellor of Great Britain, sat at Lincoln's-Inn Hall, May 1.	Count Zinzendorf, d.
—	The battle of Vittoria, June 21—the French army defeated with immense loss. For this service the marquis of Wellington was made a Field Marshal.	N. Schiavonetti, <i>Eng. d.</i>
		Gran. Sharp, <i>Philan.</i> , d.
		H. J. Pye, <i>Post Lan.</i> , d.
		Gen. Moreau, d.
		Abbé de Lisle, d.
		Shaw, <i>Nat. Hist.</i> , d.
		J. Wyatt, <i>Arch.</i> , d.
		Gotho Wieland, d.

A.C.	<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1814 Dantzic taken by the allies, Jan. 2.	1814
— Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden for Rugen and Sweden Pomerania.—Joins the allies.	Dr. C. Burney, <i>Hist. of Music, d.</i>
— Wellington totally defeats the French at Orthes and Toulouse.	Ch. Dibdin, <i>Poet, d.</i>
— Graham (Lt. Lyndock) defeated at Bergen-op-Zoom.	Sir Bus. Harwood, <i>d.</i> W. Hutchinson, <i>Topog., d.</i>
— Ferdinand VII. of Spain restored; revives the Inquisition, and destroys the Constitution adopted by the Cortes.	Iffland, <i>Ger. dramat., d.</i> Arch. MacLaurin, <i>d.</i>
— Paris occupied by the Russians and Prussians, March 31.	Th. Thornton, <i>Botan., d.</i> Dr. J. White, <i>Heb. and Arab., d.</i>
— Bonaparte deposed, and his dynasty declared at an end, April 3.	1815
— Bonaparte embarks for Elba, April 28.	F. Abington, <i>Actress, d.</i>
— Louis XVIII. enters Paris, May 3.	Cl. Buchanan, <i>D.D., d.</i>
— The emperor of Russia and king of Prussia arrive in London, June 8.	W. Harrison, <i>disc. of longitude, d.</i>
— Washington taken by the British army, August 24.	W.P. Malcolm, <i>Antiq., d.</i> J. C. Lettson, <i>M.D., d.</i>
— Hanover declared a kingdom.	Marshal Ney, <i>d.</i>
— Charles XIII. of Sweden proclaimed king of Norway, Nov. 4.	W. Nicholson, <i>Engin., d.</i>
— Peace concluded at Ghent between Great Britain and the United States, Dec. 24.	S. Tennant, <i>Chemist, d.</i> Jas. Ware, <i>Oculist, d.</i>
1815 Battle of New Orleans—the British defeated by Jackson, Jan. 8.	S. Whitbred, <i>M. P., d.</i> W. Vincent, <i>D.D., Geog., d.</i>
— New Corn Laws enacted, to maintain a high price for food, which leads to serious riots.	1816
— Bonaparte lands at Cannes, in Provence, with 1000 men, March 1, and arrives at Paris on the 26th.	A. Ferguson, <i>Moral Philos., d.</i>
— Treaty of Vienna concluded, March 25.	Eliz. Hamilton, <i>Liter., d.</i>
— Bonaparte totally defeated at Waterloo, June 18.	Jer. Joyce, <i>Educat., d.</i>
— The allied army enters Paris, July 5, and Louis XVIII. on the following day.	F. von Muller, <i>Eng., d.</i> Paesiello, <i>Mus., d.</i>
— The Holy Alliance between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, Sept. 14—and France in 1818.	Earl Stanhope, <i>Philos., d.</i>
— Bonaparte surrenders to the British, July 15; and sent to St. Helena, where he arrives Oct. 15.	Watson, <i>Bp. of Llandaff, d.</i>
— Murat ex-king of Naples shot at Pizzo, Oct. 15.	1817
— Union of Sweden and Norway, Nov. 4.	G. Anderson, <i>Botan., d.</i>
— Marshal Ney shot, December 7.	W. Beloe, <i>Transl., d.</i>
1816 Princess Charlotte of Wales married to prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, May 2.	Ch. Burney, <i>Classic, d.</i>
— Lord Exmouth bombards Algiers, August 27.	J. Carter, <i>Archit., d.</i>
— Union of Naples and Sicily.	J. P. Curran, <i>Orator, d.</i>
— The Norway Storting abolishes nobility.	Pere Gleysée, <i>Surgeon, d.</i>
1817 Habeas Corpus act suspended, March 4.	Gouffier (Ct. de Choiseul), <i>d.</i>
— Bank of England resumes cash payments.	Kosciusko, <i>Polish hero, d.</i>
— Princess Charlotte died in childbed, in the 22d year of her age, November 6.	De Luc, <i>Philos., d.</i>
— The marquis of Hastings destroys the Mahratta power in India.—British influence universal.	Alex. Monro, <i>M.D., d.</i>
1818 Charles XIII. of Sweden died, and succeeded by Charles John XIV. crown prince, ci-devant marshall Bernadotte.	Card. Maury, <i>d.</i> Messier, <i>Astron., d.</i> Mad. de Stael, <i>Liter., d.</i> Werner, <i>Mineral., d.</i>
	1818
	R. Beatson, <i>Hist., d.</i>
	Sir T. Bernard, <i>Phil-ont., d.</i>

<i>A.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>	
1818	The dukes of Clarence, Kent, and Cambridge, and the princess Elizabeth, married.	1818	Mrs Billington, <i>Vocal. d.</i>
—	Queen Charlotte died, aged 75, Nov. 17.		P. Brydone, <i>Trav., d.</i>
—	The army of Occupation withdrawn from France.		Burkhart, <i>Af. Trav., d.</i>
1819	Charles IV. of Spain died at Rome, Jan. 20.		Sir P. Frances, <i>P. Lit., d.</i>
—	Princess Victoria born, May 24.		M. J. Lewis, <i>Novel., d.</i>
—	First passage of the Atlantic by steam effected by the Savannah of New York, to Liverpool, July 15.		W. Marshall, <i>Agricult. d.</i>
—	Manchester riots—many people killed by the yeomanry cavalry.		Monge, <i>Math., d.</i>
—	The Mahmondiah canal cut from Alexandria to the Nile.		H. Repton, <i>Lds. Gard. d.</i>
1820	George IV. king of Great Britain and Ireland, Jan. 29.		Sir Sam. Romilly, <i>d.</i>
—	Revolution in Spain by the army intended for America—the king swears to the constitution of 1812, Jan.	1819	Edw. Bird, <i>Paint., d.</i>
—	The duke of Berri assassinated by Lowel, Feb. 13.		Mrs Brunton, <i>Novel., d.</i>
—	Five of the Cato-street conspirators executed, May 1.		Syd. Edwards, <i>Bot., d.</i>
—	Queen Caroline arrived in London, June 6—and on the 5th of July a bill of pains and penalties was presented against her in the House of Lords, but finally abandoned, Nov. 10.—London illuminated for two nights in consequence.		Sir Wm. Farquhar, <i>Phys., d.</i>
—	Revolution in Naples and Piedmont—suppressed by Austria—general desire for liberty throughout Italy.		Jacobi, <i>Ger. Philos., d.</i>
1821	The Floridas ceded by Spain to the United States of America.		Mal. Laing, <i>Hist., d.</i>
—	The Greek Revolutionary War commenced under Alex. Ypsilanti—revolt of the Morea—massacre of Greeks at Constantinople.		Sam. Lysons, <i>Antiq., d.</i>
—	Napoleon Bonaparte died at St. Helena, May 5. He was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, Aug. 15, 1769.		A. Murphy, <i>Transl., d.</i>
—	Mechanic Institutions established in England—and adopted in France, Germany, &c.		Jo. Playfair, <i>Math., d.</i>
—	George IV. crowned at Westminster Abbey, July 19—the most expensive coronation which ever took place in England—visits Ireland and Hanover.		Swartz, <i>Botan., d.</i>
—	Queen Caroline died, August 7.		Jas. Watt, <i>Steam eng. d.</i>
1822	The Greeks declare themselves independent.	1820	H. Andrews, <i>Astron., d.</i>
—	Mexico independent—Iturbide emperor—banished 1823.		Sir Jos. Banks, <i>pres. R. S., d.</i>
—	The anti-constitutionalists successful in Spain—army of the faith.		Beauvois, <i>Botan., d.</i>
—	Brazil independent—Don Pedro emperor.		Jo. Bell, <i>Surgeon, d.</i>
—	Death of Lord Londonderry (late Castlereagh)—Canning succeeds as Foreign Secretary, and introduces a more liberal system of foreign and domestic policy.		Dr. Thos. Brown, <i>Metaph., d.</i>
1823	Austria, Prussia, and Russia, recall their am-		Brugnatelli, <i>Philos., d.</i>
			W. Hayley, <i>Poet, d.</i>
			R. Miles, <i>Munism., d.</i>
			Isaac Milner, <i>D.D., d.</i>
			R. Ruding, <i>Munism., d.</i>
			Rev. Th. Scott, <i>Scrip. Com., d.</i>
			Benj. West, <i>pres. R. A. d.</i>
			Volney, <i>Hist., d.</i>
		1821	J. Bonnycastle, <i>Math., d.</i>
			Archd. Coxe, <i>Hist., d.</i>
			Fr. Hargreave, <i>Law., d.</i>
			Mrs Inchbald, <i>Dram., d.</i>
			Rev. Vices. Knox, <i>d.</i>
			Mrs Piozzi, <i>Miscel., d.</i>
			J. Rennie, <i>Engin., d.</i>
			Rev. S. Vince, <i>Astron., d.</i>
		1822	J. Aikin, <i>M. D., Lit., d.</i>
			Berthollet, <i>Chemis., d.</i>
			Canova, <i>Sculpt., d.</i>
			E. D. Clarke, <i>Travel., d.</i>

A.C.

- | | | |
|------|---|---|
| | bassadors from Spain, in consequence of the proceedings of the Cortes, January 5. | <i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1822
Delambre, <i>Math.</i> , d.
Haüy, <i>Mineral.</i> , d.
Sir Wm. Herschel, <i>Astron.</i> , d.
C. Middleton, <i>Bp. of Calcut.</i> , d.
C. J. Rich, <i>Antiq.</i> , d.
P. B. Schelley, <i>Poet</i> , d.
Dr. Whittaker, <i>Antiq.</i> , d. |
| 1823 | Free-Trade system commenced in England by Huskison. | |
| — | Lord Amherst governor-general of India. | |
| — | Louis XVIII. declares war against Spain, and the French army under the command of the duke of Angouleme pass the Bidassoa, April 7.—The Spanish constitution and the acts of the Cortes abolished—absoluteism restored. | |
| — | ¶ Pope Leo XII. (card. della Genga), Sept. 27. | |
| — | The Spanish constitutional general Riego executed at Madrid, October 7. | 1823
A. Arrowsmith, <i>Geog.</i> , d.
M. Baillie, M.D., d.
Belzoni, <i>Egypt. trav.</i> , d.
R. Bloomfield, <i>Poet.</i> , d.
Carnot, <i>Math.</i> , d.
Rev. E. Cartwright, <i>inv. of the weaving machine.</i>
Chas. Hutton, <i>Math.</i> , d.
E. Jenner, M.D., <i>dis. of vaccin.</i> , d.
J. P. Kemble, <i>Actor</i> , d.
De Lalande, <i>Travel.</i> , d.
J. Nollekens, <i>Stat.</i> , d.
Wm. Playfair, <i>inv. of lin. arith.</i> , d.
Mrs Radcliffe, <i>Novel.</i> , d.
H. Raeburn, R.A., d.
D. Ricardo, <i>P. econ.</i> , d. |
| — | British consular agents sent to the new South American states. | |
| 1824 | The pile stone of London Bridge sunk, March, 15. | |
| — | Burmese war—Rangoon taken. | |
| — | The London Mechanics' Institution established. | |
| — | Bolívar dictator at Peru. | |
| — | Iturbide lands in Mexico, and is shot, July 19. | |
| — | Ipsara taken by the Turks, and retaken by the Greeks with great slaughter. | |
| — | Charles X. king of France, Sept. 16. | |
| — | The great Erie canal, 393 miles in length, connecting the waters of the great western lakes with the Atlantic Ocean at New York, opened. | |
| 1825 | Francis I. king of the Two Sicilies. | |
| — | Algiers nearly desolated by an earthquake which continued at intervals for five days—Blida totally destroyed, and out of a population of 15,000 only 300 were saved, March. | |
| — | Great Britain acknowledges the South American Republics, and forms treaties with them. | |
| — | John Quincy Adams president of United States. | |
| — | The Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha lands in the Morea.—The Greeks hard pressed. | |
| — | Nicholas I. emperor of Russia, Nov. 1. | |
| — | Great commercial panic in London and throughout England—numerous failures of bankers.—Consuls fall to 79.—The panic arrested by the temporary issue of one and two pound notes by the Bank of England, December. | |
| 1826 | Revolt of Bhurtpore—besieged and taken by the British under lord Combermere, Jan. 3. | 1825
Mrs Barbauld, d.
G. Chalmers, <i>P. Statistics</i> , d.
David, <i>Fr. Paint.</i> , d.
Denon, <i>Egypt. Antiq.</i> , d.
H. Fuseli, <i>Paint.</i> , d.
Martyn, <i>Botan.</i> , d.
Rev. R. C. Maturin, <i>Novel.</i> , d. |
| — | Peace with the Burmese, who pay £1,500,000, and cede several provinces. | |
| — | The stupendous suspension bridge over the Menai, near Bangor, North Wales, opened, Jan. 30. Length of the chain 1,600 feet, height above high water 100 feet. | |
| — | John VI. king of Portugal and emperor of Brazil died, March 10, aged 59.—Succeeded | |

A.C.

- as emperor of Brazil by Don Pedro, who abdicates the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter Donna Maria da Gloria, aged 7 years.
- 1826 Revolt of the Janizaries in Constantinople—15,000 slaughtered, and the corps proscribed—a new army organized on the European model.
- The Bank of England establish branch banks in various cities and towns in England, July.
- The Greeks convene a national assembly in the island of Paros, August 14.
- A British force of 5000 men sent to Lisbon to aid the Portuguese government against the absolutists, Nov.
- First illuminated clock introduced in London, at St. Bride's, Fleet Street, Dec. 2.
- 1827 Canning Premier, April 10.—Wellington, Peel, and six other cabinet ministers, resign.
- Treaty of London, between England, France, and Russia, for the pacification of Greece, July 6.
- Canning dies, Aug. 8.—Lord Goderich Premier, Wellington commander-in-chief.
- Battle of Navarino, Oct. 20, the Turco-Egyptian fleet of 110 sail nearly destroyed by the British, French, and Russian fleet, under the command of Admiral Codrington.
- 1828 Capo d'Istria assumes the presidency of Greece, Jan. 18. The Duke of Wellington, Premier—Sir R. Peel, Home Secretary, Jan. 25.
- Lord W. Bentick, governor-general of India.
- Don Pedro, emperor of Brazil, abdicates the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria—his brother Don Miguel appointed regent, March 3.
- Russia declares war against Turkey, April 26.
- Corporation and Test Acts repealed, April 28.
- Don Miguel assumed the title of king of Portugal, June 24.
- The London University opened, October 1.
- The Morea evacuated by the Egyptian army, under Ibrahim Pasha, pursuant to convention between Sir E. Codrington and Mehemet Ali, Oct. 4.
- 1829 York Minster set on fire by Jonathan Martin (a maniac), and the interior nearly destroyed, Feb. 2.
- Andrew Jackson, president of United States.
- ¶ Pope Pius VIII. (Card. Castiglioni), March.
- Catholic Emancipation Bill passed, April 13.
- Treaty of Adrianople.—The independence of Greece acknowledged by Turkey, Sept. 29.
- 1830 William IV. king of Great Britain and Ireland, June 26.
- Algiers taken by the French, the Dey deposed, and the territory made a French province.
- Charles X. king of France, dissolves the new

Illustrious Persons.

1825

Rev. S. Parr, L.L.D., *d.*
Dr. Ab. Rees, *Cyclop.*, *d.*
Rev. C. Wolfe, *Poet*, *d.*

1826

Bricelac, *Geolog.*, *d.*
Flaxman, *Sculpt.*, *d.*
Wm. Gifford, *Poet*, *d.*
Bp. Heber, *Poet*, *d.*
Incedon, *Vocalist*, *d.*
Laennec, *Phys.*, *d.*
Sam. Parkes, *Chemist*, *d.*
Piozzi, *Astron.*, *d.*
Sir Stam. Raffles, *d.*
Serres, *Mar. Paint.*, *d.*
Talma, *Fr. Actor*, *d.*
Volta, *V. battery*, *d.*
J. W. Vost, *Ger. Poet*, *d.*
Weber, *Music.*, *d.*

1827

Wm. Belsham, *Hist.*, *d.*
Bode, *Astron.*, *d.*
George Canning, *Statesm.*, *d.*
H. Cline, *Medicine*, *d.*
Fellenberg, *d.*
Ugo Foscolo, *It. Lit.*, *d.*
J. Mason Good, M.D., *d.*
R. Hawker, D.D., *d.*
Prof. Jardine, *d.*
Laplace, *Astron.*, *d.*
Malte Brun, *Geog.*, *d.*
Wm. Mitford, *Hist. of Greece*, *d.*
Pestalozzi, *Educ.*, *d.*
Josiah Spode, *sen.*, *d.*

1828

Th. Bewick, *Wood-Engr.*, *d.*
Sir W. Congreve, *C. rockets*, *d.*
Archd. Coxe, *Hist.*, *d.*
Hon. Mrs Damer, *Sculpt.*, *d.*
Sir W. Drummond, *Archæol.*, *d.*
Dr Gall, *Phrenol.*, *d.*
Vinc. Monti, *It. poet*, *d.*
L.S., *d.*
Sir J. E. Smith, *Pres.*
Helen M. Williams, *M. lit.*, *d.*
Dr. Wollaston, *Nat. Philos.*, *d.*

A. C.

- Chamber of Deputies before it had met, changes the law of elections, and suppresses the liberty of the press, July 25—which cause the three days' revolution in Paris, July 26, 27, 28, and the expulsion of the king and the royal family from France.
- 1830 *Louis Philippe I. king of the French*, Aug. 7.
- The priesthood of France again overthrown.
- Belgian Revolution commenced at Brussels, August 25.
- Revolution in Brunswick—duke Charles expelled, and succeeded by his brother duke William.
- Revolution in the Papal States suppressed by Austrian armies.
- Liverpool and Manchester railroad opened—Huskinson killed by an accident on this occasion, Sept. 15.
- Independence of the South American republics acknowledged by France, Sept. 30.
- Earl Grey, Premier, Nov. 22.
- Ferdinand II. king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, Nov. 8.
- Revolution at Warsaw commenced, Nov. 29.
- Revolution in Switzerland—aristocratic government changed into democratic.
- The Salic law abrogated by Ferdinand of Spain in favour of his daughter, which excludes from the throne his brother Don Carlos.
- Political commotions at Dresden and Cassel.
- 1831 ¶ Pope Gregory XVI. (Card. Capillari), Feb.
- Don Pedro emperor of Brazil abdicates the crown in favour of his son Don Pedro II.
- Charles Albert king of Sardinia, April 29.
- Otho of Bavaria nominated king of Greece by the London Conference.
- Prince Leopold elected king of the Belgians, June 4.
- The new London Bridge opened by His Majesty, Aug. 1.
- Warsaw capitulates to the Russians, Sept. 7.
- Turkey ravaged by the Cholera.
- Denmark, Sleswick, and Holstein, receive representative local councils.
- The Greek fleet burned at Paros by Miaulis, to prevent its seizure by the Russians.
- William IV. and Queen Adelaide crowned, Sept. 8.
- The Cholera makes its first appearance in this country at Sunderland, November 4.
- 1832 The Cholera appeared in London, January 14.
- The kingdom of Poland decreed an integral part of the Russian empire, Feb. 26.
- The cholera in Paris; 1000 deaths in the first week, March.
- The English Reform Bill passed, June 7.
- The citadel of Antwerp surrendered to the French, Dec. 24.

Illustrious Persons.

1829

- Barras, *Ch. of Fr. Direct.*, *d.*
- Daru, *Hist. of Venice*, *d.*
- Sir H. Davy, *Philos.*, *d.*
- Dumont, *Fr. jurist*, *d.*
- Dr. R. Hamilton, *Math.*, *d.*
- J. Mawe, *Mineral.*, *d.*
- Archd. Nares, *d.*
- Regnault, *Fr. Paint.*, *d.*
- F. von Schlegel, *Ger. Philos.*, *d.*
- Th. Young, *M.D., Scien. and Lit., disc. of the Hierogl. alphabet.*

1830

- Bolivar, *S. Am. pat.*, *d.*
- Geo. Dawe, *Paint.*, *d.*
- Countess Genlis, *d.*
- Wm. Hazlitt, *Lit.*, *d.*
- Wm. Huskinson, *Com. Reform.*, *d.*
- Lally-Tolendal, *d.*
- Sir Th. Lawrence, *Pres. R.A.*, *d.*
- Sir R. Peel, *Cotton Spin.*, *d.*
- F. A. Winsor, *disc. of gas-light*, *d.*
- Maj. Rennel, *A. Geog.*, *d.*

1831

- Jo. Abernethy, *Medicine*, *d.*
- Rev. Robert Hall, *d.*
- Hegel, *Ger. Philos.*, *d.*
- J. Jackson, *R.A.*, *d.*
- Lafontaine, *G. roman.*, *d.*
- H. Mackenzie, *Novel.*, *d.*
- Abp. Magee, *d.*
- Jas. Northcote, *R.A.*, *d.*
- Wm. Roscoe, *Hist.*, *d.*
- Mrs Siddons, *Actress*, *d.*
- N. Wrexhall, *Hist.*, *d.*

1832

- Dr. And. Bell, *Educ.*, *d.*
- Jer. Bentham, *Jurist*, *d.*
- Chas. Butler, *Law.*, *d.*
- Chaptal, *Chemist*, *d.*
- Chiarini, *Orient. lit.*, *d.*
- Dr. A. Clarke, *Scrip. Com.*, *d.*
- C. O. Colton, *'Lacon'*, *d.*
- G. Crabbe, *Poet*, *d.*
- Cuvier, *Nat. Hist.*, *d.*

<i>A.C.</i>		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1833	Andrew Jackson, President of United States.	1832
—	Chinese and Indian trade thrown open to all British subjects, who are allowed to settle and possess lands in India—First admission of the natives to the magistracy.	Goethe, <i>Ger. Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i> Sir E. Home, <i>Surg.</i> , <i>d.</i> Sir Jo. Leslie, <i>Nat. Philos.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Isabella, Queen of Spain—the queen-dowager regent.	Sir Jas. Macintosh, <i>d.</i> Ant. Pugin, <i>Archit.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	A great inundation in China; 10,000 houses swept away at Canton, October.	J. B. Say, <i>Pol. econ.</i> , <i>d.</i> Ant. Scarpa, <i>It. anat.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Numerous incendiary fires in various parts of the country, December.	Sir Walter Scott, <i>Poet and Novel.</i> , <i>d.</i> Spurzheim, <i>Phrenol.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1834	Don Miguel withdraws from Portugal, and Don Pedro and his daughter, Donna Maria, the young queen, enter Lisbon, May.	1833
—	Lord Melbourne, Premier, July 18.	Chas. Dibden, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i> Ed. Kean, <i>Actor.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Monastic establishments abolished in the Portuguese dominions, May 28.	J. O'Keefe, <i>Dramat.</i> , <i>d.</i> Sir Jo. Malcolm, <i>Per. Hist.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Slavery abolished in the British Colonies, Aug. 1.	Hannah More, <i>M. lit.</i> , <i>d.</i> Rajah Rammohun Roy, <i>d.</i>
—	Poor Law Amendment Bill passed, August 8.	Sir J. Stevenson, <i>Mus.</i> , <i>d.</i> W. Sotheby, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Don Pedro regent of Portugal, died September 24, when Donna Maria was declared of age.	Jos. Strut, <i>Antiq.</i> , <i>d.</i> Wm. Wilberforce, <i>Philanth.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	The British Houses of Parliament destroyed by fire, October 16.	1834
—	Sir Robert Peel, Premier, December 26.	Sir G. Blane, <i>M.D.</i> , <i>d.</i> Bourrienne, <i>Biog. of Bonaparte.</i>
1835	Ferdinand I., Emperor of Austria, March 2.	S. T. Coleridge, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i> Dr. Doyle, <i>K.C. Bp.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	The duke of Leuchtenberg, son of Eugene Beauharnois, marries Donna Maria, queen of Portugal, and dies in about a month after, March 28.	La Fayette, <i>d.</i> Jas. Heath, <i>Engrav.</i> , <i>d.</i> R. Lander, <i>Disc. the so. of the Niger.</i>
—	Lord Melbourne, Premier, April 18.	Steo. Lee, <i>Astron.</i> , <i>d.</i> Sennefelder, <i>Invent. of Lithogra.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Fieschi attempts to assassinate Louis Philippe, Marshal Mortier and forty others killed and wounded, June 28.	T. Stothard, <i>Paint.</i> , <i>d.</i> T. Telford, <i>Engineer.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Municipal Corporations Reform Bill passed,	1835
—	David Solomons, Esq., the first Jew Sheriff of the city of London—sworn-in October 1.	Wm. Cobbett, <i>Polit. writer.</i> , <i>d.</i> Dupuytren, <i>Surgery.</i> , <i>d.</i> Mrs Hemans, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	The first stone of the City of London School, Honey-lane, laid by Lord Brougham, Oct. 21.	Jas. Hogg, <i>Poet.</i> , <i>d.</i> Chas. Lamb, <i>M. lit.</i> , <i>d.</i> T. R. Malthus, <i>Polit. econ.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	Great fire at New York, property valued at 20,000,000 dollars destroyed, Dec. 15.	C. Mathews, <i>Actor.</i> , <i>d.</i> M. T. Sadler, <i>Phil.</i> , <i>d.</i>
—	The first Municipal Elections in the corporate towns throughout England, December 25.	Sir Jo. Sinclair, <i>Polit. and Econ.</i> , <i>d.</i> Bannister, <i>Actor.</i> , <i>d.</i>
1836	Ferdinand Augustus, duke of Saxe Coburg, cousin to queen Victoria, married to Donna Maria, queen of Portugal, Jan. 1.	
—	Silver groats issued, Feb. 3.	
—	Lord Auckland governor-general of India.	
—	The Spanish Constitution of 1812 proclaimed at Madrid, and accepted by the Queen Regent, August 12.	
—	The "British Association for the Advancement of Science," held their first meeting at Bristol, August 22.	
—	The Portuguese Constitution of 1820 proclaimed at Lisbon, and accepted by the queen, Donna Maria, September 9.	

A.C.		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
1836	Charles X. ex-king of France, died at Gratz in Hungary, November 6, aged 82.	1836
—	A balloon, with three persons in the car, ascended from London, and descended at Weilburg, in the dutchy of Nassau, Nov. 7.	G. Colman, jun., <i>Dram.</i> , d.
1837	Van Buren, President of the United States.	N. Drake, <i>Essay</i> , d.
—	The United States recognise the independence of Texas, March 8.	Sir W. Gell, <i>Antiq.</i> , d.
—	Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland, June 20.	J. Gillies, <i>Hist. of Greece</i> , d.
—	London and Birmingham Railway partially opened, July 20.	W. Godwin, <i>Novel</i> , d.
—	The king of Hanover (duke of Cumberland) abrogates the Hanoverian Constitution granted by his brother William IV., and restores the old form of government.	Jas. Mill, <i>Hist. of Br. India</i> , d.
—	Parliament opened in person by the Queen, Nov. 20.	Sir J. Pond, <i>Astron.</i> , d.
—	Insurrectionary riots in Canada—suppressed by Sir F. Head, Dec.	N. M. Rothschild, d.
1838	The Royal Exchange burnt, January 10.	Abbé Sieyès, d.
—	The Earl of Durham governor-general of Canada and High Commissioner for the redress of grievances, &c.	W. Taylor, (Norwich), <i>Hist. of Ger. poetry</i> , d.
—	The Grand Seigneur abolishes the dignity of Grand Vizier, and the court over which he presided.	Dr. Valpy, <i>Classic</i> , d.
—	The "Great Western" steam-ship arrived at New York in fifteen days from Bristol, being the first steamer that had crossed the Atlantic by the power of steam alone.	C. Vernet, <i>Fr. paint.</i> , d.
—	Queen Victoria crowned at Westminster Abbey, June 28.	J. H. Wiffen, <i>Poet</i> , d.
—	175,000 Newspapers despatched from the post-office to the country, Saturday, July 2.	Benj. Wyatt, <i>Arch.</i> , d.
—	Slavery abolished by the Anglo-Indian government, Aug. 1.	1837
—	The London and Birmingham Railway opened throughout, Aug. 17.	E. Donovan, <i>Nat. hist.</i> , d.
—	Fresh insurrection in Lower Canada suppressed by Sir J. Colborne, Nov.	F. Gerrard, <i>Fr. paint.</i> , d.
—	Treaty of Commerce between England and Turkey—all British merchandise admitted into the Ottoman dominions at an <i>ad valorem</i> duty of 3 per cent., and 2 per cent. inland duties, Nov. 16.	Dr. Latham, <i>Ornithol.</i> , d.
1839	Aden, on the Red Sea, occupied by Anglo-Indian troops, Jan. 20.	Dr. Marshman, <i>Chinese trav.</i> , d.
—	Captain Elliot, British superintendent at Canton, arrested by the Chinese government, and compelled to order opium of the value of about three millions to be delivered up, April 15.	Dr. Mavor, <i>Educ.</i> , d.
—	Treaty between Holland and Belgium, signed at London, April 19.	Sir J. Soane, <i>Arch.</i> , d.
—	Abdul Medjid emperor of the Turks.	R. J. Thornton, <i>Bot.</i> , d.
—	The citadel of Ghizny, in Cabul, stormed and captured by the Anglo-Indian army under Sir J. Keene, July 20.	Sam. Wesley, <i>Music.</i> , d.
		R. Westall, <i>Paint.</i> , d.
		1838
		A. Ashe, <i>Music.</i> , d.
		T. Attwood, <i>Music.</i> , d.
		Dr. Busby, d.
		Haller, <i>Hist. Switz.</i> , d.
		Dr. Jamieson, <i>Philol.</i> , d.
		Mrs C. Kemble, <i>Actress</i> , d.
		T. A. Knight, <i>Vegetable physiol.</i> , d.
		J. Lancaster, <i>Educ.</i> , d.
		L. E. Landon, <i>Poet</i> , d.
		Baronde Moll, <i>Math.</i> , d.
		F. Ries, <i>Music.</i> , d.
		Talleyrand, <i>Fr. states.</i> , d.
		1839
		Rev. A. Alison, <i>Ess. on Taste</i> , d.
		E. H. Barker, <i>Gr. Philol.</i> , d.
		Sir W. Beechy, R.A., d.
		Belio, <i>Orient. Lit.</i> , d.
		T. H. Bayley, <i>Poet</i> , d.
		J. Bouden, <i>Biog.</i> , d.

		<i>Illustrious Persons.</i>
<i>A. C.</i>		1839
1839	Shah Sujah attended by Sir W. Macnaughtan and Sir J. Keene enter Cabul, the capital of Afghanistan, Aug. 7.	John Galt, <i>Novel.</i> , d.
—	Don Carlos seeks refuge in France, Sept. 13.	Dr. Jas. Hamilton, <i>Midwif.</i> , d.
—	The United States Bank, and numerous others, suspend cash payments, without the authority of government, Sept. 14.	Lalande, <i>Astron.</i> , d.
—	The pope prohibits the traffic in human beings by the subjects of Roman Catholic states.	Michaud, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
1840	The emperor of China prohibits all commerce with the English, Jan. 2.	F. Paer, <i>It. Dramat.</i> , d.
—	The uniform penny postage came into operation, Jan. 10.	P. Rigaud, <i>Astron.</i> , d.
—	Queen Victoria married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Feb. 10.	C. Rossi, <i>Sculpt.</i> , d.
—	The emperor of Austria grants an amnesty to political offenders, April 29.	P. Thurnerelli, <i>Sculpt.</i> , d.
—	New Zealand declared a British territory, May 21.	1840
—	Frederick-William IV. king of Prussia, June 7.	Mad. d'Arblay (Miss Burney), d.
—	Canton blockaded by the British, June 23.	Blumenbach, <i>Nat. Hist.</i> , d.
—	Prince Albert appointed, by statute, Regent and Guardian during the minority of the heir to the crown, in the event of the Queen's death, Aug. 4.	Lucien Bonaparte, d.
—	Sidon taken by the allies under commodore Napier, Sept. 27.	Sir An. Carlyle, <i>Anat.</i> , d.
—	The Spanish ministry nominated by Espartero appointed by the queen-regent, Oct. 5.	Dr. L. Carpenter, m. lit., d.
—	William I. of Holland abdicates, and is succeeded by his son William II., Oct. 7.	Dr. A. Crombie, <i>Gram.</i> , d.
—	The queen-regent of Spain abdicates her authority, Oct. 12.	Earl of Durham, <i>statesman</i> , d.
—	St. Jean d'Acre bombarded and taken by the allied fleet under admiral Stopford, Nov. 3.	A. Nasmyth, <i>Lands. Paint.</i> , d.
—	The body of Bonaparte, removed from St. Helena by permission of the British government, is deposited in the Hôtel des Invalides, Paris, Dec. 15.	Bp. Otter, <i>Biog.</i> , d.
1841	Fortifications of Paris commenced, Jan.	Paganini, <i>Violinist</i> , d.
—	Gen. Harrison president of United States.	Poisson, <i>Pres. A. des Sc.</i> , d.
—	Vice-president Tyler succeeds to the presidency of the United States on the death of president Harrison, one month after his assuming the office, April 5.	Sir R. Phillips, m. lit., d.
—	Espartero nominated by the Cortes regent of Spain, during the minority of queen Isabella II., April 12.	Jas. Smith, <i>Poet</i> , d.
—	Sir Henry Pottinger sent to China as British plenipotentiary, May.	Sir J. Wyattville, <i>Archit.</i> , d.
—	Canton capitulates to the Anglo-Indian army under Sir H. Gough—six million dollars paid by the Chinese as the ransom, May 12.	1841
—	The Great Western Railway opened from London to Bristol, having cost about £5,000,000, June 30.	Dr. G. Birkbeck, <i>found. of Mechanic Institutions</i> , d.
—	Amoy captured by the British, Aug. 20.	Sir F. Chantry, <i>Sculpt.</i> , d.
—	The Prince of Wales born, Nov. 9.	Jos. Chitty, <i>Law.</i> , d.
		Sir A. Cooper, <i>Surgery</i> , d.
		Dannecker, <i>Sculpt.</i> , d.
		De Candolle, <i>Botan.</i> , d.
		T. Dibdin, <i>Dramat.</i> , d.
		Dr. O. Gregory, <i>Nat. Philos.</i> , d.
		Theod. Hooke, <i>Novel.</i> , d.
		Dr. E. Nares, <i>Hist.</i> , d.
		Sir David Wilkie, R. A., d.

A.C.

- 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes and other officers murdered at Cabul, Nov. 25.
- General rising against the British at Cabul—Sir W. Macnaughtan, the British envoy, murdered by Akhbar Khan, Dec. 25.
- 1842 The Anglo-Indian troops, consisting of the 44th regiment of the line, and several regiments of sepoy, between 4,000 and 5,000 fighting men, evacuate Cabul under a convention, but are attacked by the Afghans in the Khoord-pass, and massacred, together with the camp followers, in all about 13,000 persons, only two or three fugitives escaping, January 6—8.
- Prince Albert lays the first stone of the New Exchange in the city of London, Jan. 17.
- Anti-liberal revolution in Portugal.—The charter of 1826 proclaimed, the duke of Tercera appointed president of the council, and Costa Cabral minister for the home department, Feb. 10.
- Lord Ellenborough arrives in India, and is proclaimed governor-general, Feb. 28.
- The emperor of Russia publishes a Ukase for the amelioration of the condition of the serf population of the empire, April 2.
- General Sale defeated Akhbar Khan before Jellalabad, April 7.
- The town of Cape Haytien, St. Domingo, destroyed by an earthquake, and 10,000 persons killed, May 7.
- General Nott defeats the Afghans before the walls of Candahar, May 29.
- Turn-out of the cotton-spinners at Ashton-on-Lyne, in consequence of reduction of wages, which is followed in all the manufacturing districts of England and Scotland, Aug. 8.
- Treaty of peace signed at Nankin by Sir Henry Pottinger, the British plenipotentiary, and the Chinese high commissioners; the Chinese agreeing to pay twenty-one million dollars in the course of three years, to throw open the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai, to cede Hong-kong to the British in perpetuity, to release all prisoners, and henceforth to conduct the intercourse between both nations in forms of perfect equality, Aug. 29.
- The Society Islands occupied by the French, Sept. 8.
- The Walhalla, a temple dedicated to illustrious Germans, opened by the king of Bavaria, Oct. 19.
- Insurrection at Barcelona, in Spain, against the government of the regent Espartero, November 14; Barcelona, being bombarded, surrendered, and the insurrectionists disarmed, December 3.

Illustrious Persons.

1842

- Dr. T. Arnold, *Hist.*, d.
 Sir C. Bell, *Surgery*, d.
 Pozzo de Borge, *Rus. States*, d.
 Dr. Channing, *m. lit.*, d.
 Cherubini, *Music*, d.
 Prof. Heeren, *Hist.*, d.
 Dr. P. Kelly, *Math.*, d.
 Larrey, *Mil. Surg.*, d.
 Leechman, *Nat. Hist.*, d.
 W. Maginn, *m. lit.*, d.
 Sir R. K. Porter, *Trav.*, d.
 Pozzo, *Sculpt.*, d.
 Gen. Shrapnel, *inv. of S. Shells*, d.
 Sismondi, *Hist.*, d.
 Marq. Wellesley, *States*, d.
 Weyse, *Music*, d.

- A.C.*
 1843 Espartero dissolved the Spanish Cortes which were to meet in April, Jan. 3.
 — Popular revolution in Hayti, St. Domingo, and the president Beyer driven from the island.
 — The territories of Scinde declared a British province, and the navigation of the Indus rendered free to all nations—Sir Charles J. Napier, K.C.B., the conqueror, the first governor, Feb. 24.
 — The Thames Tunnel opened for foot passengers; it was commenced in 1825, and completed in little more than nine years of actual labour, at a cost of £446,000, March 23.
 — On the meeting of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland at Edinburgh, May 18, the Moderator and a majority of the members protest against the interference of the civil power with the rights and privileges of the church (particularly in enforcing the settlement of ministers in parishes against the wishes of the majority of the church members), and withdraw in a body from the Assembly, and form the Free Presbyterian Church of Scotland, to which about one-half of the parochial ministers adhere.
 — Anti-liberal revolution in Spain—Madrid surrendered to the insurgents, July 24; the regent Espartero escapes on board the British ship *Malabar* at Cadiz, and is conveyed to England by the *Prometheus*.
 — Queen Victoria landed at Treport, on a visit to the king of the French, Sept. 2; and at Ostend, on a visit to the king of the Belgians, Sept. 13.
 — Popular and bloodless revolution at Athens, Sept. 3, when king Otho assented to the dismissal of his Bavarian ministers, and to re-establish the National Assembly.
 1844 A new constitution voted by the Greek National Assembly, and accepted by king Otho, March 10.
 — Sir Henry Hardinge appointed Governor-general of India, May 6.
 — Tangier bombarded by three French ships of the line under Prince de Joinville, Aug. 8; and Mogadore on the 15th.
 — The king of the French landed at Portsmouth, on a visit to queen Victoria, Oct. 8.
 — The new Royal Exchange, London, opened by queen Victoria, Oct. 28.
 — The Spanish constitution of 1837 abrogated by the Cortes, under the dictation of general Narvez, Sept. 28.

Illustrious Persons.

1843

- John Allen, *h. lit.*, *d.*
 Colocotroni, *Gr. pat.*, *d.*
 Delavigne, *Fr. Paint.*, *d.*
 Hahneman, *fo. of Homœopathy*, *d.*
 Hainroth, M.D., *Insan.*, *d.*
 K. T. Kemp, *Chemist*, *d.*
 Lamotte-Fougue, *Lit.*, *d.*
 J. C. Loudon, *lands. garden.*, *d.*
 R. Southey, *Poet*, *d.*
 Rev. Jas. Tate, *Classic*, *d.*
 Noah Webster, *Lexic.*, *d.*

1844

- Jo. Abercrombie, *Phys.*, *d.*
 W. Beckford, "*Vathek*," *d.*
 Bernadotte, *k. of Sweden*, *d.*
 Jos. Bonaparte, *d.*
 John Dalton, *Chemist*, *d.*
 Th. Campbell, *Poet*, *d.*
 Basil Hall, R.N., *Lit.*, *d.*
 Thorwalden, *D. Sculpt.*, *d.*

THE END.





